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MR. GLADSTONE'S APOLOGY TO AUSTRIA.

IMMEDIATELY on the formation of the Government two of its members have had to make public apologies. Mr. FAWCETT's case was in one respect worse than Mr. GLADSTONE's, because the unjustifiable statement which he was forced to retract had been made since he became a Minister. Even if his charge against the late Secretary of State for India had been well founded, he ought not to have anticipated the judgment of Parliament, and the action of his own colleagues, by appealing directly to a popular meeting. His apology was ungracious in the insinuation that Lord CRANBROOK and Mr. STANHOPE ought to have suspected the miscarriage which he had previously accused them of deliberately suppressing. It is fair to admit that Mr. FAWCETT is not ordinarily deficient either in prudence or in good feeling. Experience will soon teach him that the true official attitude is one of reserve, if not of defensive caution. His late indiscretion was personal or peculiar to himself, and he cannot be said to have damaged the Government. Mr. GLADSTONE's letter to Count KAROLYI, or rather the occasion of its appearance, is humiliating to the country as well as to himself. It may have been better to express contrition than to persist in an indefensible foreign policy; but it is not satisfactory that one of the earliest State papers of the new Cabinet should contain an acknowledgment of error, of discourtesy, and of injustice. It is surprising that Mr. GLADSTONE should condescend to draw a contrast between his present responsibility and the comparative freedom which he professes to have enjoyed before he became Prime Minister. Such a distinction might be reasonable in the case of an ordinary member of the party who, perhaps beyond his expectation, now finds himself an Under-Secretary or a Lord of the Treasury; but Mr. GLADSTONE, long before the election, had resumed the rank of leader of the party, and he always explained and justified the violence of his language by the depth of his convictions. He again and again denounced the Ministry which was then in power as the worst and wickedest of modern times, mainly on the ground of its foreign policy. At the time he would have rejected with contempt the excuse that he was not officially responsible for his opinions and his language. Within a few days he has informed his constituents that he will redeem all the pledges given during his canvass, and he makes no exception as regards the foreign policy which he recommended. Even if he had not resolved before the election to place himself at the head of the Government, he must have intended to impress his policy on any Liberal Ministry which might be formed.

The attacks on Austria which are now publicly disavowed or withdrawn were repeatedly and deliberately made, in spite of constant remonstrance and warning. Similar charges advanced two or three years ago in the House of Commons had been received with disapproval by the more judicious members of his own party. It was therefore known that Mr. GLADSTONE's expressions of enmity to Austria during his Scotch oratorical circuit were not attributable to temporary irritation or caprice. His early hostility to the Power which formerly resisted Italian freedom and independence combined itself with more recent jealousy of the possible antagonist of the supremacy of the Greek Church and the Slavonic race. Having never concerned himself with foreign affairs except under occasional impulse, he seemed to

have forgotten that the Austro-Hungarian monarchy is not in its institutions or its tendencies the same with the Austria of METTERNICH. Mr. GLADSTONE's unmeasured language produced the unusual result of a temperate and dignified protest addressed by the EMPEROR himself to the English AMBASSADOR. No occasion could have been more favourable for a courteous and respectful explanation, and for a discontinuance of unseemly vituperation. Mr. GLADSTONE, having seen in some newspaper an inaccurate report of the conversation between the EMPEROR and Sir H. ELLIOT, replied in the same pugnacious and contemptuous tone which he might formerly have used to Mr. DISRAELI in a House of Commons debate. He once more asserted that Austria had never interfered in European politics for good, although no other Power has so often or so long been the intimate ally of England. That, next after England, Austria was the most constant and most formidable enemy of NAPOLEON may perhaps in Mr. GLADSTONE's judgment not have been a merit. His latest phrase in the Midlothian declamations was the singularly offensive formula of "Hands off." Assuming that Austria threatened the independence of Bulgaria and the progress of East Roumelia and the provinces still subject to the SULTAN, he intimated, in terms of rude menace, that the English Liberal party, then about to succeed to office, would not tolerate aggressions which have not been attempted or proposed.

It may perhaps not be proper for the FOREIGN MINISTER to accede to a motion which is to be made in the House of Commons for the production of Count KAROLYI's letter; and it appears that some of the communications were oral. There can be no doubt that Mr. GLADSTONE's acknowledgment of the courteous tone of the document is well deserved; but it is much to be regretted that such a communication should have been necessary. It was a drawback from Lord PALMERSTON's statesmanlike and diplomatic qualities that he made many enemies in foreign Courts and Cabinets; but during his thirty years' direction of international affairs he never exposed himself to such a censure as that which has been administered by the Austrian AMBASSADOR to Mr. GLADSTONE. In 1846, when the return of his party to office was imminent, Lord PALMERSTON paid a visit to Paris for the express purpose of removing the personal prejudice which he had provoked on the part of the French KING and his Ministers. He had repeatedly thwarted their intrigues, and he had sometimes not sufficiently concealed his opinion of their conduct; but he had never in or out of office been guilty of the indiscretion of publicly attacking the French nation or its Government. After a short stay he returned to England with the certainty that his resumption of the seals of the Foreign Office would not produce any unfriendly feeling on the part of France. Mr. GLADSTONE learned little or nothing from a chief whom he never cordially liked or zealously supported. He might advantageously have accepted Lord PALMERSTON's favourite principle that among great States there was no room for liking or disliking, and that foreign policy could not be reduced to a system. France or Russia was to be opposed in attempts to disturb the peace and equilibrium of Europe; but Lord PALMERSTON was ready to co-operate with either Power in the attainment of objects which he thought desirable. Perhaps Mr. GLADSTONE himself has now at last become a convert to Lord PALMERSTON's doctrine, since he has suddenly discovered in himself a feeling of respect

and good will to Austria. The position of a suppliant for pardon is so awkward that Count KAROLYI will probably excuse a passage in the letter of apology which, however ill-timed, cannot have been seriously intended to give offence. Mr. GLADSTONE accepts the AMBASSADOR'S declaration that his Government has no design of advancing in the direction of Salonica, and that an accession of territory would be inexpedient and unacceptable. If the assurance had been given earlier, Mr. GLADSTONE would, he says, not have used the language which has given rise to just remonstrance. The object of an unfounded charge is not bound to have anticipated an unprovoked attack by an assertion of his own innocence. When Mr. GLADSTONE exclaimed "Hands off," he ought to have been prepared with proof that there was a design of laying hands on a coveted territory. He adds the obscure statement that he had relied on secondary evidence, not from hostile sources and not of his own seeking. The application of a technical epithet to political information is not a little puzzling. Secondary evidence, though it is subject to restrictions in English courts of justice, may often be sufficient to determine the policy of a statesman. It was Mr. GLADSTONE'S duty, in Midlothian as in Downing Street, to speak the truth, and, as a preliminary condition, to know what was true. It is no excuse for misstatement that there has been no previous contradiction. Perhaps the most important moral to be derived from a mortifying incident is that delicate questions of foreign policy ought not to be discussed for party purposes before a popular audience. A Radical Scotch mob has no hesitation in applauding abusive language against a Government of which it knows nothing; and it cares little for the impediment which may probably be offered to friendly concert and co-operation.

Lord GRANVILLE would willingly have dispensed with an unwelcome appendix to his Circular, but it may be hoped that the common action which he invites will not be refused. The Porte, which, among other faults, has all the vices which belong to weakness, may perhaps find a certain support in the joint demand of the Great Powers that it should comply with its undoubted obligations. Almost any settlement of the Greek frontier question would be preferable to an indefinite adjournment, and it would relieve the Turkish Government from the burden of protecting the disputed territory. It is doubtful whether means can be found for coercing the Albanian insurgents, who appear to be more than a match both for the Turkish troops and the Montenegrins. The suggestion that an Italian army might be sent to restore order is for many reasons inadmissible. It will probably appear that there are other clauses of the Berlin Treaty to be enforced, in addition to those for which the Porte is held responsible. The Governor-General of East Roumelia permits or encourages systematic persecution of the Greek and Turkish population. The Bulgarians are perhaps not sufficiently attached to the independence which awakes the passionate sympathy of Mr. GLADSTONE. It is not Austria alone which must be warned to keep "hands off." The Prince of BULGARIA has lately returned from St. Petersburg with the rank of Lieutenant-General and of Aide-de-camp to the EMPEROR; and the number of Russian military officers in the province is constantly increasing. The Circular will have one good effect in satisfying Germany and Austria that the present Ministers meditate no sudden or violent departure from the policy of their predecessors. The respect of European statesmen for English agitators of high political rank will not be increased; but it may be presumed that the language of the Circular is calm and courteous, and fortunately Lord GRANVILLE is not personally responsible for the mischievous rhetoric which may have been mistaken for a serious political scheme. His vicarious suffering for Mr. GLADSTONE'S error must have been severe, when he was forced to begin his first official interview with the Austrian Ambassador with a disavowal or retraction of the wanton impropriety committed by his chief.

THE AFGHAN WAR ESTIMATE.

THE new POSTMASTER-GENERAL has yet to learn the lesson expounded with such lucid frankness in his Chief's letter to Count KAROLYI. A high officer of State no doubt does well to resolve neither "to repeat nor

"even defend in argument polemical language used "individually in a position of greater freedom and less "responsibility"; but Mr. FAWCETT has begun his official career with a blundering calumny, worthy of the most reckless hour of Opposition; and even in his grudging apology he half repeats the charge which the facts of the case rendered it necessary to retract. A few lines to Lord HARTINGTON would have enabled him, before launching at the late Government an accusation as serious as ever one English statesman brought against another, to ascertain its truth or falsehood; but Mr. FAWCETT preferred to trust "solely to information received before the late Government "resigned"; and his audience at Hackney were no doubt perfectly content to take on trust any demonstration of Conservative turpitude which their member was able to produce. The officials of the India Office, and especially Mr. STANHOPE, must feel obliged to their unchivalrous antagonist for an opportunity of putting their conduct as honourable gentlemen beyond dispute; but Mr. FAWCETT'S leaders have probably ere now seen reason to remind him that baseless accusations, wantonly made and ungenerously retracted, are not calculated to strengthen the confidence of the educated classes in the new Administration. Lord HARTINGTON will not, it may be expected, be anxious for the assistance which Mr. FAWCETT, with such patronizing alacrity, announced that he was willing to give him in the administration of India. Mr. FAWCETT'S zeal is commendable, and his ignorance of Indian affairs is less intense than that of many Englishmen; but Lord HARTINGTON is well aware that one of his chief claims to the regard of his countrymen is his incapacity to descend to the demagogic vulgarities which not even the dignities of office have enabled Mr. FAWCETT to discard.

It is now beyond dispute that the India Office did not learn the altered financial position in India until after the dissolution of Parliament and almost the close of the elections. Not only did the telegram of the 13th of March not "explicitly reveal the grave crisis," as Mr. FAWCETT admits, but there was nothing in it to suggest the likelihood of any such crisis; it referred merely to a discussion which had for long been on hand between the two Governments, as to the amount of the Secretary of State's weekly drawings—a matter which, it is well known, has frequently to be reconsidered with reference to its immediate effects on the money-market. So far the question is interesting only as it affects the good faith of the late Government; but the wider issue raised by Mr. FAWCETT is of Imperial importance. Is it true, as he appears still to insist, that the recent intelligence from India has "completely cast to the winds the "prosperity Budget"? If so, the measures necessitated by the recent discovery must go far deeper than the reform of a department, the improvement of the account machinery, or the removal of an incompetent official. Some or all of these measures are, on the face of the matter, essential. A finance system under which a Minister so able and experienced as Sir JOHN STRACHEY is liable to be misled on a wholesale scale fails in one of its principal objects, and calls for searching inquiry into defects which to so large extent impair its usefulness. The forms of Indian account, however, have been prepared by English financiers of high position, and are not ordinarily supposed to be deficient in checks on expenditure or the means of estimate. The experience of the former Afghan war has proved that there are very special difficulties attending the supervision of military outlay in a country such as Cabul, where a large number of officers, most of them unfamiliar with accounts, are necessarily entrusted with the use, practically unfettered, of public funds. If an officer is desired to place his force, *coûte que coûte*, in a specified position, he will have to pay for carriage and commissariat exactly what the exigencies of the occasion enable the suppliers to extort. Prices in India, moreover, are liable to enormous fluctuations, and it is conceivable that in this way the military accountants may be able to justify a part of their miscalculation. Another possible explanation is that, in the course of the campaign, the VICEROY, dissatisfied with the existing commissariat arrangements, placed a single officer in charge of this department, and armed him with an absolute dictatorship. Sir MICHAEL KENNEDY'S proceedings in the discharge of this important duty are known to have been exceptionally vigorous; they must have largely enhanced the expenditure at numerous points; and it is not unlikely that, with a view to expedition, the ordinary

routine of audit may have been departed from and considerable outlay thus escaped notice for the time. The fact that the miscalculation was so speedily discovered shows that the department, though perhaps too cumbersome and slow in operation, does not, in the long run, fail to do its work. Nor did Sir JOHN STRACHEY profess to be dealing with more than conjectural figures. "The military estimates," he expressly warned his hearers, "must of course be to a great extent speculative," and though on the figures then before them the Government did not think it necessary to enter a loan on the Estimates, the likelihood of such a necessity was distinctly intimated, and the Government "emphatically reserved to itself the freest discretion to raise, during the year, any loan which actual events may render necessary." "Loan transactions," Sir JOHN STRACHEY added, "are habitually presented with expressed reserve, and this reserve must be understood to be this year greater than usual." The wisdom of this reservation was shown more speedily, no doubt, than the Finance Minister expected; in the meanwhile, it is surely no unforgivable offence to have so far accepted an avowedly conjectural estimate as to refrain from borrowing until the necessity for a loan was proved.

As to the general question of the soundness of the financial position in India, it is natural enough that Mr. FAWCETT should welcome an opportunity of justifying views which practical experience has shown to be erroneous. He has again and again declared that the country was being imperilled by financial mismanagement, that a day of stern reckoning was at hand, and that England would have soon to deal with the bankruptcy of an Empire. He will no doubt convince himself, and endeavour to convince others, that what he is pleased to call the present "grave crisis" is a fresh illustration of the truths which he has so persistently enforced. But how far is this the case? The resources of India sufficed in the year 1878-9 to provide three-quarters of a million for "war," 313,000*l.* for famine, and a surplus of 2 millions; they sufficed in 1879-80 not only to defray the expenses of the war—3½ millions—and to spend 99,000*l.* in famine relief, but to meet an outlay of 1½ million on strategical railways, designed not only with a view to the present campaign, but for the permanent protection and profit of our North-Western frontier. Besides this, there was a balance of 119,000*l.* During 1880-81 2½ millions more will be spent upon the frontier railways, and this sum, in addition to nearly 2½ millions of war expenses, can be met out of the revenues of the year, and still leave a surplus of 417,000*l.* It results, therefore, that the income of India for the three years, 1878-79, 1879-80, and 1880-81, has been more than 13 millions in excess of ordinary expenditure. Assuming the war to cost 6 millions in the present year, and thus to involve a total expenditure up to the close of 1880-81 of 10 millions, the whole of this can be met out of current income, and a balance of three millions on the three years' transactions would yet remain. The idea of defraying the cost of the strategical railway system out of annual revenue would of course never have been suggested but for the extraordinary prosperity of the last three years; but as the object of the Famine Insurance Fund was either to diminish existing debt or prevent an increase of debt which would otherwise be inevitable, the employment of the annual surplus on these works, supposing it to be available, would have been strictly legitimate. Now that it is shown that the war expenses of the present year will exhaust the available surplus, the money for the strategical railways must be found elsewhere. But there has never been any doubt that these railways ought to be made, and their construction out of borrowed capital is entirely unobjectionable. Ignorant or unscrupulous assailants of Sir JOHN STRACHEY have frequently declared that his "famine surplus" has disappeared. As the object of his arrangements was to establish an annual margin of two millions of ordinary income over ordinary expenditure, it is obvious that it has been accomplished with more completeness than its author could have hoped.

These figures appear to us to establish a position which Mr. FAWCETT and those who draw their inspiration from his speeches would do well to study. Most of them are matters of account, formally audited and beyond dispute. They harmonize with the experience of the last decade, which, as any one who will take the trouble to peruse the Budget speech may see, shows an average annual balance of 2½ millions of ordinary income over ordinary expenditure. A writer in the *Spectator*, who does not, appar-

ently, include a perusal of the document criticized among the requisites of conscientious criticism, denounces "the preposterous system under which an Indian Budget covers four years—the revised actuals of 1878, the actuals of 1879, the partly estimated accounts of 1880, the anticipation sketch estimate of 1881." He and his readers will be surprised to learn that the whole of this account is an absolute figment of the writer's imagination. No such preposterous system exists. The Indian balance-sheets exhibit the closed and audited account of the past year; the account, closed but for two months, of the current year; an estimate of the income and revenue of the year about to come. They will of course mislead those who look at them as carelessly as did Mr. GLADSTONE; nor is it probable that they will enlighten persons who, like the writer in the *Spectator*, are ignorant of their very outline. But so far as the general arrangement goes they are simplicity itself, and to those who care enough about India to study them with attention they supply ample ground for believing in the substantial prosperity of the country and the marked success of its financial administration.

TURKEY.

MR. GOSCHEN will probably do all that can be done at Constantinople; but whether he can do anything remains to be seen. Sir HENRY LAYARD has never been wanting in activity and vigour, and for a long time past he has, under the instructions of his Government, applied to the Porte and to the Palace incessant pressure. The Ministers who had succeeded to office during his temporary absence have proved even less amenable than their predecessors to warning and remonstrance; while the SULTAN, who retains in his own hands a large share of arbitrary power, scarcely disguises his impatience of foreign interference and control. No effectual measures have been taken for the removal of fiscal abuses, or for the protection of the peaceable communities which suffer from official oppression, and, in the Eastern provinces, from the rapacity and cruelty of Circassian exiles and Kurdish marauders. There is no proof that the perverse obstinacy of the SULTAN and his Ministers has on this occasion been caused or encouraged by Russian intrigue. The impediments which have been offered to the due punishment of a ruffian from Bosnia who murdered a Russian officer indicate an impartial antipathy to all Christians and foreigners. No serious efforts are made to avert or relieve the terrible famine which has broken out in parts of Asia Minor and Armenia; but military preparations have been made for the suppression of the disturbances which will certainly ensue. The English AMBASSADOR is not responsible for the failure of his endeavours, and the Consular agents in the Asiatic provinces have constantly furnished him with abundant materials for advice and complaint. The results of the Russian war have been disastrous to the subjects of a Government which was always weak and vicious, but which has never before been reduced to its present condition of helplessness. The SULTAN at the same time shares and dreads the fanaticism of the Mahometan population. Even the protection which he has hitherto afforded to an obscure assassin is plausibly attributed to his fear of resentment on the part of Bosnian soldiers, who form a part of the guard of the palace. Neglect of the counsels of foreign Ambassadors, though it may end in the overthrow of the Empire, at least involves no immediate danger to his person.

The Government is well advised in despatching on a special mission to Constantinople a representative of high political rank who will enjoy the fullest confidence of the Cabinet. Mr. GOSCHEN will perhaps not find occasion for the exercise of his financial skill and knowledge, inasmuch as he will not bring the aid of English credit to a bankrupt Treasury; but the SULTAN and his advisers may perhaps listen to an Envoy who will be supposed to bring with him a new policy. Mr. GOSCHEN himself has during the long Eastern controversy maintained for the most part a judicious silence. He is not supposed to have approved Mr. GLADSTONE's one-sided violence, and, on the other hand, he gave no active support to the late Government. While he is not known as an enemy of Turkey, he will speak in the name of a Cabinet which will make no additional sacrifices for its preservation. Only a few months ago a Turkish Minister insolently suggested to Sir HENRY LAYARD that his urgency for the reform of the administra-

tion was affected for the purpose of influencing the elections in England. It is now understood that a powerful section of the dominant Liberal party is indifferent, if not hostile, to the maintenance of the Ottoman Empire. Whatever may be thought of the expediency of reversing the ancient national policy, possible or imminent alienation may not improbably serve the purpose of a diplomatic weapon. There is no doubt that the Turkish Government has frequently relied on the supposed interest of England in the maintenance of the Empire. Its late obstinacy and unfriendliness are in some degree the result of disappointment at the refusal of support during the war, and of financial assistance at a later period. Mr. GOSCHEN will perhaps appeal rather to the fears of the SULTAN than to his hopes, yet his mission is so far friendly that he will make no demand which would not be for the benefit both of the Turkish people and of the Government.

In entering on the administration of foreign affairs Lord GRANVILLE has been fortunate in an opportunity of acting in concert with all the Great Powers. Their Ambassadors, including the representative of Austria, concurred in Sir H. LAYARD's protest against the incapacity or bad faith which has prevented the settlement of the Montenegrin frontier question. The fact that armed Albanians are in possession of the districts which were to be ceded by the Porte to Montenegro has not been excused to the satisfaction of the Powers. The commander of the Turkish troops evacuated the territory before the appointed time, and without giving due notice to the Montenegrins. It is possible that he may not have been strong enough even to hold his position. Some of his men were Albanians who have since joined their countrymen; and his remaining force is insignificant. The report that the Albanian League has declared its independence of the SULTAN is contradicted, but it is more than doubtful whether he is able to enforce his authority. There may perhaps be no reason why the national rights of the Albanian tribes should not be as fully recognized as those of Bulgarians or Montenegrins; but the Treaty of Berlin contained no stipulation in their favour, and the Turkish Government is at least technically responsible for the acts of its nominal subjects. In an elaborate memorandum the Turkish Ministers affected to prove that the evacuation had been executed with punctuality and good faith. The Ambassadors unanimously reply that the statement is not satisfactory; and they further demand that the Turkish forces shall reoccupy the ground, and that they shall secure a free entrance to the Montenegrin garrison. It is uncertain whether Turkey will be either able or willing to comply with the demand. The Albanian force is said to amount to some thousands of men, with a proportion of artillery; and the Christian and Mahometan tribes appear for once to be united. Foreign Powers, not having recognized the Albanians, can deal only with the Turkish Government.

The not less perplexing alteration of the Greek frontier will possibly at last be arranged. In this case also there is an Albanian element to be considered; and the Turks can scarcely be expected to give armed assistance to an unfriendly neighbour against claimants who perhaps still profess allegiance to the SULTAN. The reasons of the long delay which has taken place are imperfectly understood, for the alleged backwardness of the late English Ministers affords neither a certain nor a sufficient explanation. The Turkish negotiators might be excused for pursuing their usual policy of delay. They could not be expected to appreciate the claim to an accession of territory which was founded on abstinence from unprovoked invasion during the Russian war. The neutrality of Greece was due as much to the fear of Turkish superiority at sea as to the remonstrances and assurances of the English Government. At Berlin the Greek agents perhaps relied too exclusively or too ostentatiously on the patronage of France; but during later negotiations all the Powers appear to have been equally tolerant of procrastination. It is uncertain whether Mr. GLADSTONE and Lord GRANVILLE propose to support the claim of Greece to the acquisition of Janina. The opinions which may have been expressed by the UNDER SECRETARY OF STATE before his accession to office afford no clue to the present intentions of the Government. The feud between the Greeks and Bulgarians, which has lately revived with increased acrimony, may possibly have suggested to the Turks the expediency of conciliating the less unfriendly neighbour. It is believed that Austria, which has never cordially sup-

ported Greek claims, offers no impediment to an early conclusion of the controversy; and the French Government, though it may have relaxed its efforts, will favour the extension of Greek territory. The Emperor of RUSSIA has on all occasions professed to support the demands of Greece, although the Slavonic races are more direct objects of his protection. If all the Powers are agreed, not only on the immediate settlement of the dispute, but on the details of the frontier line, which have been abundantly studied and discussed, one possible cause of war ought to be finally eliminated. There is no reason to suppose that Lord GRANVILLE sympathizes with Mr. GLADSTONE's enthusiasm for the inhabitants of the provinces which have been wholly or partially detached from the Turkish dominion. He will at least not attempt to extend or alter in their favour the provisions of the Treaty of Berlin; and the Austrian Government has judiciously consented to forget a wanton rhetorical challenge. Whatever may happen hereafter, there is for the time no question of an Austrian advance to the South; and, on the other hand, Bosnia and Herzegovina must be content to defer any aspiration to alliance with Montenegro or Serbia or East Roumelia. Mr. GOSCHEN will scarcely be able to provide a remedy for the disorders which result from the war and from the subsequent arrangements. The cruelties which are perpetrated on the helpless Turks in Bulgaria, the outrages which are committed by roving Mussulman bands in Macedonia, could only be suppressed by a strong and honest Government, which is to be found neither in Turkey nor in the newly-established Principality. Probably the instructions under which Mr. GOSCHEN will act may relate rather to Asia than to Europe. The present Ministers may be expected to rely on the Treaty of Berlin in preference to the separate convention between England and Turkey; but in any attempt at concerted action they will be confronted with the difficulty of inducing any Power except Russia to take an interest in the administration of Armenia and Asia Minor. It might be possible, but scarcely expedient, to obtain the intervention of France in Syria, which was reluctantly evacuated by NAPOLEON III. in deference to the urgent demands of Lord PALMERSTON. It was probably for the purpose of excluding the action of either Power, and more especially of Russia, that Lord BEACONSFIELD negotiated the subsidiary convention which still needs a satisfactory explanation.

MR. BRIGHT AND FOREIGN OPINION.

IT is impossible to converse with that intelligent foreigner whose opinion on the late political crisis has been so often invoked without perceiving that there is one of the new Ministers whose presence in the Cabinet makes more impression on him than even the Premiership of Mr. GLADSTONE. The PRIME MINISTER has declared his views on all public questions in a hundred speeches and writings, and, if he is misunderstood, it is not for want of material. But Mr. BRIGHT is the symbol of a policy which out of this country is regarded as in the highest degree mysterious. He belongs to history; and in the view of the instructed foreign observer he is still the Mr. BRIGHT who was Mr. COBDEN's friend and colleague from 1840 to 1855. A great deal has happened since then in this country which enables us to form a judgment on Mr. BRIGHT; but abroad he remains the public man who, next to Mr. COBDEN, did most to overthrow the most powerful Government of its time by converting its chief to new opinions, and who immediately afterwards endeavoured to popularize the doctrine which was no doubt inaccurately described as "Peace at any price."

Perhaps we have never in this country sufficiently appreciated the deep sensation created throughout Europe by the rise and fall of Sir ROBERT PEELE's Government. The political calamities which befell the English Tory party in 1831 and 1832 had corresponded to the dethronement of the elder branch of the French BOURBONS; and the return of a strong Conservative Government to power under PEELE had seemed to answer to that restoration of political authority in France which LOUIS PHILIPPE prematurely boasted that he had effected. The form of opinion which had governed Europe since the end of the great war at the beginning of the century appeared to have revived in both countries in a modernized shape. What followed in England was even more surprising than the events which happened three years later in France. The

success of a Parisian street revolt in 1848 was intelligible; there had been plenty of precedents for it within the memory of living men; but in this country a powerful Minister had succumbed, not to popular discontent, but to the force of conviction, and the agents in producing the change of opinion had been Mr. COBDEN and Mr. BRIGHT. Now it may confidently be said that disinterested conversion from one set of opinions to another had not been heard of for centuries in Europe as a force in politics, and it was natural that the men who wielded the new instrument should be regarded with universal curiosity. Soon, however, it appeared that, next to Free-trade, Mr. COBDEN and Mr. BRIGHT believed in peace—almost in non-resistance; and the advocacy of this policy by men who had shown themselves to be possessed of new and genuine power caused as great and as general astonishment as the surrender of Sir ROBERT PEEL to their economical opinions.

Neither of the doctrines with which Mr. COBDEN and Mr. BRIGHT were identified has ever been well understood on the Continent of Europe; and the surprise which they occasioned when they were first promulgated has left plain traces behind it. Free-trade has made some way in a few Continental countries; but almost never in the shape in which it triumphed in Great Britain. There is no European statesman who can be said to have accepted it as the logical result from a body of incontrovertible truths. Here and there certain industries recognize it as for their interest, and are anxious to introduce or extend it; but it is hardly ever advocated on theoretical grounds; and indeed the all but universal assumption throughout Europe is that Protectionism is the natural characteristic of a tariff, and that a special case must always be made out for the reduction of any particular duty of importation. And if the doctrine of Free-trade is misunderstood, still less is the doctrine of Peace comprehended. The date of its first promulgation at Manchester almost exactly marks the beginning of an era of gunpowder and glory. The principle that peace should be purchased at any price short of the most extreme thus remains a wonder in the eyes of all men but Englishmen; and it is only not ridiculed because, like Free-trade, it is believed to be specially associated with England. There has been much striking evidence in the conduct of English Governments, of all sorts of political complexion, that this country is as far as possible from having adopted it; yet the belief that she is influenced by it, or is going to be influenced by it, is always growing up from time to time in European Chanceries; and of course it is this impression that England cannot be depended upon not to do something some day quite as startling as the sudden abandonment of protection to all domestic industry, which causes the present Continental speculation as to the significance of Mr. BRIGHT's seat in the Cabinet.

It is doubtless the irony of fate which has made Mr. BRIGHT the symbol of long-suffering and non-resistance. We Englishmen who know him well have long since seen that, when his cheek is smitten, it is not the other cheek, but the doubled fist, which the reflex action of his nervous system presents to the assailant. We may even suspect that, now that he is in office, if any intolerable insult were offered to his country, his temperament would be too strong for his convictions, and no Minister in the Cabinet would perhaps be more eager in the demand for reparation than Mr. BRIGHT. But this is purely British knowledge. The foreigner can only judge Mr. BRIGHT by his public declarations, and these are exactly of a kind to produce the impression that he has changed in nothing since, in the heyday of his oratorical vigour, he first preached peace at Manchester. For, as we all know, Mr. BRIGHT always nowadays makes the same speech. The prosperity of the United States, and the excellence of their institutions; the virtues of the Liberal party, and the innumerable benefits which it has conferred on the British people; the inborn wickedness, stupidity, and obstructiveness of the Tories; the inestimable value of the penny press, and the burdensomeness of India—all these topics recur again and again, with an iteration which is only not wearisome because the language in which they are clothed has not lost much of its ancient spirit and point. It is only a close observer who perceives that, in the eulogy on all things American, there is now an absence of reference to that peculiar peacefulness by which the American people was once supposed to be distinguished, and who recognizes in the combativeness which animates every sentence the temper of mind which, if the circumstances surround-

ing the speaker were altered, might even lead him, as a Minister, to prefer war, upon adequate provocation, to peace.

It is not, therefore, surprising that, seen in the dimness of distance, Mr. BRIGHT should appear to have neither learned nor forgotten anything since his Manchester days, and that the Cabinet which includes him among its members should appear to nine-tenths of Europe to have hoisted the flag of peace at any price. It would be idle to deny that this impression about the new Government is far more important than any opinion which may prevail on the Continent as to the views of the British Foreign Office on the execution of the Treaty of Berlin or the development of nationalities in the Balkan peninsula. The doctrine proclaimed by Mr. COBDEN and Mr. BRIGHT seemed singular and paradoxical when it was first given to the world, and yet forty years ago there was much to explain it. There had been peace since 1815, and men, as is their habit, had begun to think that what had lasted so long would last for ever. The one Power which had remained armed to the teeth was Russia, and it has been generally believed that the Russian EMPEROR had sufficient faith in the new principles to be persuaded that they had added to his strength by removing one formidable opponent from his path. But nowadays a Ministry of non-resistance is a far greater paradox than it would have been in 1840 or 1850. Such a Ministry issues Circulars to its representatives abroad, entertains enlightened opinions on all sorts of questions, and gives the most admirable advice. But when a great crisis comes, it is obliged, if it is true to its principles, to stand by while facts accomplish themselves. This reverses the process of which we have had so much experience during thirty or forty years. Wherever great results have been achieved, action has come first, and lecturing or theorizing afterwards. The members of the French National Assembly were seized during the night in their beds towards the end of 1851; and then came an Empire which was afterwards discovered to be Peace and a good many things beside. The most considerable event of our time is the establishment of the German Empire in the centre of Europe. But it began in an elaborately contrived rupture, sought to be justified by the most technical and trivial pretexts, and it was not till much later that the cause of national independence was declared in hundred of peans to have had its greatest triumph, and that Prince BISMARCK was able to affirm that nothing would delight him more than general disarmament and settled European peace. A policy without a determination to enforce it, or with a determination not to enforce it, has become the most singular of anomalies in Europe, however wise it may be, and however forcibly it may be expounded. One of the chief difficulties of the new English Ministry will be to prove to the world that its speech, which is silver, will be found at some point or other to be plated over iron.

ALSACE-LORRAINE.

IT is natural that the French should have their lost provinces constantly in their minds, and should seek to assure themselves that it is not only France, but Alsace and Lorraine also, that have suffered seriously through the enforced rupture of their ancient ties. Prudence forbids any Frenchman of eminence and competent knowledge to write freely on a subject which is felt to be politically dangerous; but an anonymous French writer has recently done all that ingenuity and industry can suggest to make out a case bad enough to seem exceedingly satisfactory against the German occupants of the territory that France has lost. The burden of his story is that these provinces are as little Germanized now as they were ten years ago; that there is not the slightest sympathy between the conquerors and the conquered; that pedantic and irritating changes have been made in every department of administration; and that the bewildered provincials are being pushed rapidly down the hill of material decay. There is much more than vague declamation in this criticism, for it is based on facts that deserve attentive consideration; but from the outset we feel that we are in the hands of a writer who does not even pretend to be impartial, and who makes no effort to understand how it can be that ideas which are repugnant to him seem natural to Germans. He detests all Germanization—not only the Germanization of Alsace-Lorraine, but the Germanization of Germany. According

to him the Germans are a perverse set of military archaeologists, who, while they have taught themselves to fight, have also taught themselves to look on the middle ages as the ideal period of their history, who are constantly retrograding, and have no proper place in the life of the nineteenth century. That everything German is sure to have its formal and pedantic side is undeniable; but then it may be safely said that no one except a Frenchman could have brought himself to regard the revival of national feeling in Germany as a mere archaeological craze. This French critic writes as if he had never heard of the wars of the first NAPOLEON, of the tyranny and insults to which Germans were exposed during the years of the French domination, and of the crushing repression of all national aspirations under the monotonous absolutism of NAPOLEON and his Marshals. When the yoke of NAPOLEON was thrown off the Germans longed, not only to be left to themselves, but to feel themselves a nation. They went back in thought to the time when Germany seemed to have been really and exclusively German; when there was a unity of institutions and something like a unity of aims, and when Germany had not yet been broken up into the petty States which afterwards became the tools or the prey of the foreigner. The French critic dwells on the easy, happy life which the inhabitants of these petty States often led. To be the obscure subjects of obscure princes is the precise lot which, with the calm superiority of a Frenchman, he considers the Germans were created to enjoy. He mourns over the Alsations because they were not permitted, in becoming Germans, to enjoy the only kind of happiness of which Germans are capable. If they had been provided with a Serene Highness, and been left to vegetate under his benign influence, they might have been tolerably prosperous and tolerably contented. It is impossible that any one outside France should acquiesce in this mode of interpreting the wishes and destiny of Germany. In becoming a great and united nation the Germans no doubt had to give up something. They lost the humble placidity which so often compensates the obscure for being forgotten by the world. What they gained in exchange was a reasonable security that there should be for them no recurrence of the days of NAPOLEON and his Marshals. If they had to take new provinces into the Fatherland, they necessarily made them a part, not of the Germany that was trampled on by NAPOLEON, but of the Germany that trod underfoot his successor at Sedan.

The French critic thinks it something dreadful that Prince BISMARCK should on one occasion have frankly confessed in the German Parliament that he could not be always troubling himself about the likes and dislikes of the inhabitants of the conquered provinces, that Alsace-Lorraine was primarily meant to be the rampart of Germany, and that he would take care that it was made as good a rampart as possible. This seems nothing more than the statement of an elementary fact. The Germans hoped that the large portion of the population which speaks the German language would not be unwilling, or even perhaps would be glad, to find itself once more incorporated in the country to which it formerly belonged; but they never pretended to draw the line of their new frontier for any but purely military purposes. There are half a million of Lorrainers who have nothing whatever to do with Germany, but who were arbitrarily turned into Germans because German soldiers considered their territory indispensable for strategic purposes. Soldiers built forts and devised military railways where, for their own objects, they thought it best that forts should stand and railways run. Of one of these military railways, that from Strasburg to Lauterburg, the French writer gives a picturesque description, piling up his epithets and accumulating his details in order to give the impression that this line must be a terrible nuisance to the unfortunate inhabitants of the district. The construction of the line is, he tells us, that of a continuous embankment for fifty kilometers, so as to furnish a cover for sharpshooters. Every little arch has its chamber ready for a mine; every little guardhouse has its loopholes and its barbicans; at every five kilometers there is a station, and the station building is surrounded by a tower in which there is a clock, the face of which masks the embrasure of a cannon. The outbuildings and surroundings of the stations are on far too grand a scale for peaceful purposes, and all around stretch beautiful kitchen and flower gardens, where deceptive lettuces and nasturtiums grow, but which the keen eye of a French traveller detects to be meant each as a little Cyprus and a possible place of

arms. It is sad, too, to think that the natives of the district got nothing out of the construction of these barbicans and clock-towers or the planting of the lettuces and nasturtiums. The Government paid for the line out of the milliards, and was in such a hurry to spend its money and get its railway that it brought in a host of strange workmen to carry out its designs without the loss of a moment. The railway has been finished, the workmen are unemployed, and these intruders now hang in idleness and poverty about the towns and villages of Alsace. This is impressive; but it only comes to the simple fact that the Germans made a military railway, and made it as it best suited them. There is nothing to constitute a grievance for the Alsations, if it is once understood that it is their special mission to provide Germany with a scientific frontier. When this is once accepted, it is difficult to see why the Alsations should complain of the mode in which they have been treated with regard to public works. We do not know that they do complain, but their French friend feels sure that they ought to complain. The military railways were not made with their money, but with the milliards extorted from France. When it came to spending their money on public works, they were allowed to spend it or not as they pleased. They even resisted successfully a strong pressure put upon them by the Prussian Government to execute a work in which that Government was much interested. The coal-fields of Saarbrück belong to Prussia, and the outlet towards France is through the canal of the Saar in Lorraine. By means of a new system of canalization made since the war, the French on their side of the frontier can bring Belgian coal into the district. The Prussians wished to compete, but found that in order to do so effectually the bed of the Saar canal must be deepened. They offered the province a subvention to induce it to carry out the work; but it refused, and, as Lorraine belongs to Germany and not to Prussia, the Prussian Government was powerless. This seems a curious instance to choose of German harshness and tyranny. The injured provincial as he gazes at those treacherous nasturtiums may at least comfort himself with the thought that he can prevent Prussians from sending their coals to market at a remunerative price.

There are, however, some respects in which the situation of the inhabitants of the annexed provinces has changed for the worse. In the first place, they have to pay more in taxes than they used to do. This is what would have happened to them even if they had remained a part of France, and both in France and in Germany taxation has largely increased since the war. But the provincials find German administration not only more irritating, but more expensive, than French, and this is the part of their new burdens to which they most object. Secondly, the German commercial system and German commercial habits have nothing very attractive for those who have been recently brought within their influence. Protection favours German goods, and the provincials complain, not only that German goods are forced upon them, but that the goods forced upon them are very bad of their kind. Cheap and nasty was the verdict passed on German goods at Philadelphia, and it is the verdict passed on them by the provincials who are now excluded from access to the superior workmanship of France. Then the humble German trader is not a fascinating being. The Alsations complain that he is nothing but a Jew who comes among them merely to make the best of petty bargains, with some malicious scheme always in his wily head, and having no real connexion or sympathy with those whom the fortune of war has permitted him to plunder. Lastly—and this is the point on which the French writer dwells with the greatest urgency—the whole legal system and the whole system of the administration of justice have been recast in Alsace and Lorraine. The provincials have been deprived of all the advantages which they believed themselves to derive from the Code NAPOLEON and from the symmetrical system of French legal administration, and instead they have got the new German Code and Germans to work it. The writer is, if possible, more contemptuous of German law than of anything else that is German. It is in his eyes a mere childish return to feudal customs and mediæval institutions. The worst point on which he can fasten is that there have been established everywhere very subordinate judges who go about their little districts and are helped by assessors. The notion of a judge trotting about a district seems ludicrous to a Frenchman, and the employment of assessors is open to the reproach

that assessors were employed a thousand years ago, and are not employed under modern French law. Then far too much importance is attached to oral testimony. There may have been little other testimony on which to rely when the art of writing was known to few but the clergy; but the superiority of written over oral proof has been recognized in French law for three centuries, and it seems strange that German jurists should be blind to the danger of allowing men by free swearing in Court to go back on that which they have committed to paper. An inevitable consequence of a lax mode of regarding writings is the increase of speculative litigation. To check litigation judicial fees have been increased, and in one way or another litigation has become in Alsace-Lorraine so much more frequent or so much more expensive that the judicial fees now figure in the provincial budget for a sum twenty times as large as that which they produced under the French system, while the communes have had to provide seventy-six new houses of detention to receive those who may fall under the displeasure of the wandering Judge and his assessors. No doubt all these things produce a certain amount of friction. New laws, more suits, judges of a new pattern, goods cheap and bad, Jew-like hucksters, and more taxes to pay, do not make life pleasanter, or cause those who bring them in their train to be beloved. A Frenchman who would be very sorry, or who would perhaps refuse, to see anything different, may still be right in seeing in Alsace-Lorraine a failure on the part of the Germans to win over their new brethren to a cheerful acquiescence in the fate that has befallen them. But at any rate the provincials cannot think that they are specially badly treated. Everything the Germans do to them they do to themselves, and it is not easy to see how Alsace-Lorraine could have been treated better if it was to be seized in order to form the rampart of Germany.

RUSSIA AND CHINA.

IT seems probable that the Chinese Government has determined on war with Russia. If the sentence on the unfortunate Envoy who signed the Treaty of Livadia is executed, the judicial murder may be considered as a ceremonial announcement of the rupture. The merits of the quarrel are but imperfectly understood, though it is admitted that the Russian Government promised several years ago to restore the province of Kuldja to China on certain conditions which seem to have been satisfied. By the treaty of which ratification has been withheld, certain districts, which are of course described by the Chinese as the most valuable parts of the province, were to be retained by Russia on the abandonment of the rest. It is impossible to judge whether the provision was equitable, or how far such an arrangement was comprehended in the powers given to the Ambassador. According to the European doctrine of public law, the Chinese Government had a strict right to decline ratification; but in dealing with Asiatic civilized Governments are not always in the habit of conforming to any definite international code. Although the Russian Government professes to have taken offence, its grievance must be effectually mitigated by its possession of the disputed territory, especially as the former promise of evacuation will be regarded as no longer binding. Although the Russian army in the eastern part of Central Asia may perhaps not be for the time strong in numbers, a few regiments would easily hold their own against any force which could attempt to drive them out of Kuldja. It may perhaps not be true that some of the Chinese troops in those regions are still armed with bows and arrows; but neither their weapons nor their discipline would enable them to contend with comparatively weak bodies of Russians on equal terms. The Mahometan population which may have survived the former war and the massacres by which it was attended will probably prefer the Russians to their implacable Chinese enemies. On the other hand it is probable that the Russian Government would not have undertaken to restore Kuldja if the possession of the province had been profitable or convenient.

The difficulty of divining the motives of the Chinese Government is aggravated by uncertainty as to the persons with whom the direction of the Imperial policy may rest. The grandmother and mother of the young EMPEROR, who ostensibly exercise his prerogatives, are more likely to be

governed by Court favourites than by grave and responsible Ministers. The extent of authority possessed by the EMPEROR's kinsman, Prince KUNG, who is an experienced statesman, is imperfectly understood. The project of war with Russia appears to be too serious a policy to result from a palace intrigue; and yet it offers no intelligible hope of national advantage. Its promoters have already displayed commendable activity of preparation by settling the dispute with Japan. No other ally could in case of war have been so useful to an enemy of China; and it would be a triumph of diplomacy to convince the Japanese that they also are threatened by their powerful Western neighbour. The impending rupture will happily not involve European complications. The Ambassadors at Peking, including the representative of England, have used their utmost exertions both to save the life of the late Envoy to St. Petersburg and to dissuade the Chinese Government from its warlike policy. One or two Russian papers alleged that the Kuldja dispute was prompted or embittered by England with the object of creating a diversion in Central Asia; but, even if any English purpose could be served by the extension of Russian territory which may probably be a consequence of the war, the interest of England in the commerce of China largely preponderates over any benefit which could be derived from a war in the heart of the continent. It is not impossible that irritation against Russia might extend to all foreigners; and a maritime war is always injurious to the trade of neutrals. The great bulk of foreign commerce with China is in English hands, and heavy loss might result from a blockade of any of the treaty ports. Probably Shanghai might be exempted from such an inconvenience. It has often been remarked that, in consequence of common relations and of exposure to similar dangers, the European and American community has there constituted itself into a sort of little republic. When powerful Mandarins from time to time encourage the lower classes in their hostility to foreigners, the merchants at Shanghai make joint preparations for defence.

The Russians have lately strengthened their fleet in the Pacific; and although the Chinese Government possesses some powerful war steamers, it will scarcely be able to contest the maritime supremacy of Russia. Indeed there seems to be no vulnerable point at which, either on sea or land, the Chinese can reasonably hope to inflict any damage on the enemy. To uncivilized enemies they are formidable by reason of their inexhaustible numbers and their dogged perseverance. The Mahometan States which were established as the result of a successful insurrection seemed likely to be permanent; but when they were weakened by accidental circumstances, the Chinese gradually pressed on, and filled up the gaps which were produced by a war of extermination. A civilized opponent such as Russia may find Chinese hostility troublesome and expensive; but it has nothing to fear from their military or naval force until China shall have adopted European organization. If the Russians intend to keep Kuldja, they cannot be driven out, although they may possibly have a long struggle to maintain their dominion. It is fortunate that the Indian Empire is for the most part separated from the Chinese frontier by wholly or partially independent States; and there has not yet been a territorial dispute between the two Empires. The treaty rights, indeed, which were acquired twenty years ago rest ultimately on force; but the coast of China is accessible to ships of war; and Peking might, if necessary, be once more occupied. The two Chinese wars which shocked the philanthropists of the last generation have produced lasting peace and commercial intercourse, if not good will on the part of the defeated combatant. The English and French were at that time compelled to assume the offensive. The Russians, in the event of a rupture, may, if they think fit, avoid collision with the Chinese, except in the improbable contingency of an attempt to obtain forcible possession of Kuldja. They may perhaps extend their dominion over the adjacent provinces of China, but they are probably not anxious to burden themselves with an unprofitable addition of territory.

Notwithstanding the apparent laxity of administration which prevails throughout the Empire, the Chinese Government has for some years past encountered no formidable resistance in any part of its dominions. Since the victories of Colonel GORDON, the Taepings seem to have become extinct, and minor attempts at rebellion have been

easily crushed. The recent collapse of an insurrection headed by a bold adventurer has been followed by an attempt to resume an obsolete sovereignty over the Portuguese possession of Macao. The circumstances are not accurately known, but it appears that the Chinese authorities have taken proceedings which imply a refusal to acknowledge the Portuguese title. Whether a legal form or fiction will be converted into a practical claim probably depends on the power of the foreign settlers to maintain rights which are now for the first time questioned. It is highly probable that in Chinese estimation Hong Kong, though it is possessed in full sovereignty by England, may be either a feudal dependency or perhaps a province of the Empire. The Chinese know how to make practical use of their partly real and partly affected ignorance of the condition and rights of foreign nations. On ceremonial occasions the representatives of civilized States have found it almost impossible to assert their equality by methods at the same time satisfactory to themselves and intelligible to prejudiced native spectators. The contrivances by which Chinese courtiers seek to humiliate unconscious strangers have a childish and ludicrous aspect; but, as far as they sustain the natural conviction of superiority, they may sometimes have political value. It is possible that the injustice inflicted on the unfortunate Ambassador, and the menacing attitude which has been assumed towards Russia, may be intended rather to impress the imagination of Chinese subjects than to prepare the way for an impolitic war; yet it is surprising that the Government should not have seized the opportunity of recovering that portion of the province of Kuldja which Russia was willing to cede. It would always have been possible to repudiate or violate the treaty after profiting by its provisions, if circumstances had rendered the recovery of the territory retained by Russia safe or easy. Although China is not yet formidable to great and civilized Powers, the resources which it possesses in the inexhaustible numbers of the population are in their kind wholly unequalled. The national indifference to human life would enable an ambitious Chinese ruler to make enormous sacrifices for the increase of his power, and the tried stability of the Empire renders possible a steady and continuous policy. The bigotry which restrains the Chinese from the use of material improvements of foreign origin suggests a large reserve of wealth and power. The prohibition of railways, because they must in the first instance be constructed and worked by Europeans, will not be perpetual. The Chinese Government has, with a certain inconsistency, imported from England vessels of war of the newest construction; and, although the armament of the troops is still defective, it is believed to have been greatly improved since the last war. If there should be a prolonged contest with Russia, though the result will not be doubtful, it is probable that the Chinese may learn much from the enemy.

PRINCE BISMARCK.

PRINCE BISMARCK has kept away from the German Parliament long enough to make his re-appearance interesting, even if he had not turned the occasion to such really remarkable account as he did last Saturday. As has happened with some of the PRINCE's most important speeches, what he said went very far beyond the question actually before the House. The occasion of his speech was a motion of Dr. DELBRÜCK's providing that the ratification of the revised agreement between Germany and Austria relative to the navigation of the Elbe should not prejudice the right of Parliament to determine whether the Customs frontier on the Elbe shall continue, as now, above Hamburg, or be transferred, as the German Government are understood to wish, to a point considerably below that city. This question is indirectly associated with the proposal to incorporate a part of Hamburg into the Customs territory of the Empire. If the change is made, the examination by the German Custom House officers of vessels coming up the Elbe will take place before they reach Hamburg, instead of after they have passed it. It is easy to see what large powers of annoyance this would place in the hands of the Government, and how easily it might be used either to force Hamburg to surrender her rights as a free port or greatly to hamper her in the use of them. The original agreement between Germany and Austria, which dates from the year 1821, specifies the point

at which the Customs station shall be fixed; and Dr. DELBRÜCK contends that, in any alteration of the agreement, the place of the Customs station should equally be fixed by Parliament.

It was in answer to this contention that Prince BISMARCK spoke. He did not affect to regard the particular issue as of much importance. The reason he assigned for his reappearance was his desire once more to bear his testimony against the parties which seek to obstruct the development of German unity. It might, however, be the last time in which he should bear this testimony as CHANCELLOR, though he hoped to bear it to the end as a private member. It was especially necessary for him to expose the wicked designs of these parties, because their authors have succeeded in deceiving the very elect. Dr. DELBRÜCK had been his most active and valued fellow-worker in the establishment of the Empire, yet he is now making common cause with the Clericals. The Clericals are the worst enemies the Government had to contend with. They are very strong, and very well disciplined, and the consequence was that they are usually able to furnish half the numbers in an average division. The Samoa Bill was thrown out the other day by a majority half of which were Clericals, and as they are commonly ready to reinforce any party which desires to see the Government defeated, there is never any security that this incident would not repeat itself. Poles, Progressists, Free Traders, all become important in proportion as they make common cause with the Centre. It is to be noted that Prince BISMARCK himself has been guilty of the very crime which he attributes to his adversaries. Last year he went away from Parliament under the conviction that the Centre meant to effect some compromise with the Government. They showed, that is to say, a decided disposition to vote as the Government wished them to vote, and the PRINCE was so pleased with their behaviour that he had serious thoughts of making peace with the POPE. This Session, however, things have gone from bad to worse. The Centre has voted against the Government, and every fraction of the Opposition in turn has supported the Centre in doing so. All this makes for the advantage of Particularism. The National Liberals, who have of late been the greatest sinners in the way of keeping bad company, very much mistake their real interests when they give support to the Centre. They only encourage the Particularist Governments, who want no encouragement. Nor are these Governments themselves much better advised. They may vote against one another in the Federal Council as much as they like, but they may find it dangerous to vote against Prussia. As to Prince BISMARCK himself, it is a matter of very small moment whether the Liberal fractions continue to make common cause with the Centre, or refuse it all support for the future. In the latter case, he is confident of his ability to carry out his policy to the end; in the former case he will be able to wash his hands of the whole concern and go back into private life. Thus he is sure either of victory or rest, and both will be equally agreeable to him.

For the first time Prince BISMARCK seems to have threatened resignation without conveying any sense of terror to those who listened to him. It may be that he has at last convinced the Liberal party in the German Parliament that he does not mean what he says, and that if they continue to vote according to their convictions, he will find some excuse for not inflicting the penalty so often denounced. Great Ministers have been taken at their word before now, and found in the end that a resignation which no one really desired had to be persevered with out of pure shame. At all events, the particular motion which had called forth Prince BISMARCK's speech was virtually carried against the Government. The new Elbe Navigation Act was referred back to the Select Committee, which has already reported on it, because it contained the clause objected to by Dr. DELBRÜCK. Probably it is not only the frequency of the CHANCELLOR's threats of resignation that has brought about this result. This undisguised indifference to the issues professedly involved in the legislation against the Catholic Church can have pleased nobody. For nine years Prussia has been agitated by the conflict between the CHANCELLOR and the Vatican. The May Laws have been a constant source of confusion and disturbance. They have not been accepted by the clergy, and in so far as they have been carried out by the secular authorities, they have simply made a united

community a divided one. These are serious consequences to be laid at the door of a particular policy; but it is conceivable that the gain arising from this policy has been so unmistakable that even such drawbacks as these may be put up with. In this case, however, it is for Prince BISMARCK to indicate what these gains have been. It might have been supposed, for example, that he would not have been ready last year to suspend the May Laws unless he had been of opinion that they had answered their purpose. Prince BISMARCK attempts to show nothing of the sort. His object in passing these laws, and his object in holding out hopes of their repeal, has been exclusively Parliamentary. He has been punishing Catholic priests and Catholic bishops because Catholic laymen would not vote as he wishes them. He admits that this is what he has been doing for the last year. It is the action of the Centre in the German and Prussian Parliaments that has made him change his mind about the May Laws. Prince BISMARCK has so accustomed Europe to avowals of this sort, that their full cynicism may scarcely be appreciated. It is very much as though M. DE FREYCINET were to declare that he had published the decrees against the religious orders, not because the religious orders did any particular harm, but because the clerical members of the Chamber of Deputies had voted against the Government on the renewal of the commercial treaty with England. If the May Laws were designed not to ward off a specific danger from the country, but to coerce Catholics into supporting Prince BISMARCK's general policy, there is no section of German or Prussian opinion that can really defend them. Those who dislike this kind of legislation will be able to point to Prince BISMARCK's speech in proof of their contention that it was not required. Those who approve of this kind of legislation will naturally resent an assurance coming from so authoritative a source that it was resorted to merely as a piece of political strategy, and without the slightest reference to any danger to be apprehended from the Catholics. Prince BISMARCK has so often frightened his adversaries into supporting him against their will, that he may succeed in doing so again. But he has never strained his influence so severely as he has done in this instance.

THE DEVONSHIRE CLUB DINNER.

SOME fault has been found with the members of the Devonshire Club for dining together last Wednesday—a piece of fault-finding which we are inclined to think very unreasonable. It is an established maxim in English life that there is no event in existence which does not justify one or both of two proceedings on the strength of it—a presentation at Court and a complimentary dinner. Moreover the guests on this particular occasion, having stood for constituencies in which the Devonshire Club is situated, and of which a large number of its members may be supposed to be electors, had a perfectly sufficient claim to be feasted. The entertainment might perhaps have been spared the presence of the very talkative and very self-satisfied young gentleman whom Middlesex rejected, and whom Leeds was not too proud to pick up. Mr. HERBERT GLADSTONE's reference to the "purer political air of the North" was quite in the paternal style, both in its probably unconscious identification of purity and self, and in the remarkable felicity of the conjunction of the ideas of Leeds and pure air of any kind. But Mr. H. GLADSTONE's presence since his adoption, *faute de mieux*, by the town of cloth, was in some sense a superfluity at the Devonshire Club dinner, which was designed to celebrate not so much victory as defeat. Even had it been otherwise, Lord HARTINGTON's very graceful and temperate opening speech would have disarmed the most exasperated Tory—supposing that, after certain recent events, exasperation could linger in any Tory breast. There is something curiously odd in the contrast which the actual leader of the present Ministry and the somewhat leader of the late Opposition present. With one signal and unfortunate exception, Lord HARTINGTON has never eaten his words, simply because he has always measured them. He rarely speaks—he rarely spoke even in the heat of the late contest—without bringing his hearers back into that serene atmosphere of political conflict where the weapons are "arms of courtesy," and where the battle is conducted on the principles which befit a battle in which the ques-

tion at stake is who shall do most good to the country in his own way. There must indeed have been considerable mental qualification in the hope which Lord HARTINGTON expressed that his party had "succeeded in avoiding personality." But for his own part he might have made the statement in stronger terms than that of hope. It is Lord HARTINGTON's misfortune, not his fault, that he has to repair the blunders and excuse the indecencies of colleagues who are older than himself, but certainly not wiser.

In the replies of the guests the same spirit of moderation was not uniformly exhibited. Sir ARTHUR HOBBHOUSE has before now exhibited proficiency in the art of putting his foot in it, and he certainly repeated the manoeuvre on Wednesday night. It appears, indeed, that Sir ARTHUR "does not desire a seat in the House of Commons." The grapes in May are still sour, no doubt. But the original fox did not, as far as we remember, make his statement to an assembly gathered together to congratulate him on the efforts he had made to show that they were sweet. Sir ARTHUR's references to the past were, however, less remarkable and much less unfortunate than his hopes as to the future. He hopes, it seems, that at the next general election the strongest argument in favour of the Liberal candidates for Westminster will be a comparison between the present Government and the last. He hopes to be able to say that "since Lord BEACONSFIELD was driven from office, no Minister has tarnished his honour" by saying the thing that was not, and that when "our Ministers make an assertion, that assertion represents a fact." Alas for Sir ARTHUR HOBBHOUSE! His speech was doubtless composed before the publication of Mr. GLADSTONE's letter to Count KAROLTI and of Mr. STANHOPE's reply to Mr. FAWCETT. Mr. FAWCETT, at any rate, is, we should have said, a very conspicuous instance of a Minister, if not a Cabinet Minister, making an assertion which represented the very reverse of a fact. Mr. JOHN MORLEY, as was to be expected, steered clear of such rocks. He need not perhaps have done vicarious penance for the "journalist and man of letters" over whom Lord HARTINGTON had indulged in the least little crow—the most polite and gentlemanlike of crows. The INDIAN SECRETARY had perhaps fair game of not a few of our contemporaries in his reference to the dispositions evinced towards the new Government by some pretty loud supporters of the old. The jades which are galled by this may wince, and those whose withers are unwrung need not affect any inordinate sympathy with them. But when Mr. MORLEY declares that the London journalist has latterly been the "wrongest of men," and attributes his wrongness to a belated admiration of Lord BEACONSFIELD, he is scarcely on such safe ground. His attribution of causes is certainly erroneous, and events seem in the most obstinate and ungracious way in the world to be showing that the men of letters and journalists were curiously right in their wrongness. They said, for instance, that Mr. GLADSTONE would as Prime Minister make himself and the country ridiculous, and he has done it almost before his chairs and tables have had time to get into Downing Street. They said that the incoming Ministry would find it impossible to reverse the foreign policy of the late Government, and this, too, has already been proved true. On the part of the "wrongest of men" these must be admitted to be singular and unaccountable glimmerings of rightness, shown to be such in a still more singularly and unaccountably short space of time.

Politically speaking, the two speeches which Lord HARTINGTON made, if they do not contain much positive information, present a sufficiently curious study, and throw not a little light on the present somewhat anomalous state of the Government. As to what the Ministry was going to do, the speaker naturally could or would give but little information on the subject, only begging for no indulgence in great expectations. It seems to have burst upon the late Opposition quite suddenly that the government of the country in such times as the present is not such an easy thing after all, and requires considerate handling. As to general lines of conduct, Lord HARTINGTON could only make the familiar reference to "those principles which we are endeavouring to support and that policy which we wished to condemn." But to these mysterious principles the old Herodotean phrase, "which it is not lawful to mention," might conveniently have been added; and, as to the condemned policy, it must have struck even Lord HARTINGTON's hearers as odd

that it should already have been adopted. But the real subject for remark was the singular position which the speaker and his hearers assumed towards each other. Lord HARTINGTON spoke as the virtual leader of the Liberal party; expressed, as such, his acquiescence in present arrangements; was treated as such by the guests. The general conclusion resulting from the whole affair was that Mr. GLADSTONE is Premier by the grace of Lord HARTINGTON. And this conclusion results, not from any assumption in words on the part of the younger leader, nor from any suggestion of disagreement, but simply from an indefinable total impression. That such an impression is in accordance with what Mr. CARLYLE used to call the laws of the Universe, such events as the KAROLYI letter seem to be rapidly proving. The situation is altogether a peculiar one, and it remains to be seen how far it will prove lasting or possible. As far as Lord HARTINGTON is concerned it must necessarily be to his advantage. He has plenty of time before him, he can afford to wait, and every folly and false step of his nominal superior must redound to his credit. Probably, too, the triple wall of self-esteem which hedges in Mr. GLADSTONE will prevent him from realizing the relation in which he stands to the INDIAN SECRETARY. If he did realize it, the effect might be rather alarming; for Mr. GLADSTONE, as was said of DREYER, "is not of a temper to design to be a foil to 'any one.'" But while the nominal unity of the Ministry may thus be maintained notwithstanding a position almost as logically false as, as it was said beforehand, would be that of a Ministry with Lord HARTINGTON at its head and Mr. GLADSTONE as a subordinate, the possibility of permanently maintaining the unity of the party seems more doubtful. In the first flush of victory Radicals like Mr. COHEN, and even Radicals of a more advanced type than the member for Southwark, may be content to eulogize Lord HARTINGTON. But when the situation which is just emerging becomes further developed, when the divergence of Radical and Whig becomes once more marked, how will the Extreme Left bear the increase of Lord HARTINGTON and the decrease of Mr. GLADSTONE, and what will be the result of their apparently inevitable discontent? We can only say that then will come the time for Lord HARTINGTON to clear himself of the only stain on his political scutcheon—the too memorable surrender to Mr. CHAMBERLAIN on the Army Discipline Bill. It is possible that that surrender was dictated by a feeling that in Opposition and in the day of battle "it would not do to discourage 'friends,' a feeling politic perhaps, if of doubtful morality. There will be no such excuse in the case now supposed; and it will be at that day, which must sooner or later arrive in the ordinary course of things, that Lord HARTINGTON will have to show whether his moderation comes from the consciousness of strength or from the consciousness of weakness.

SUNDAY LABOUR IN FRANCE.

THE French Senate has lately had under consideration a Bill to repeal the law which forbids labour on Sundays and Feast-days. Englishmen may be surprised to hear that such a law is in existence. A "French Sunday" has long been a synonym in this country for a day on which the shops are open and the ordinary occupations of life go on as they do during the week. There has of late years been a considerable movement among Catholics in the direction of a stricter observance of Sunday, but it has not been extensive enough to affect the general aspect of business life. Ever since 1814, however, a law forbidding Sunday labour has had a place in the Statute-book, and the Sabbath-breaking customs which have so shocked English travellers of the gentler yet stricter sex have grown up in distinct violation of it. It may be thought that, as the law has never been obeyed, it was needless to provoke religious strife by a proposal to repeal it, and before the resuscitation of the laws against the religious orders this argument might perhaps have prevailed. But it is not an argument to which a Government which has been hunting up disused weapons in the legal armoury can resort without danger. The law against Sunday labour is at all events more recent than the laws on which the decrees against the Jesuits are founded, and it is certainly not more obsolete than the latter were till lately supposed to be. Supposing that an attempt to put the law of 1814 in force had suddenly been made, the Go-

vernment would have found themselves in a difficulty. They could hardly have allowed the law to be put in action without remonstrance or contention, and yet, if they had resisted the application of it, they must have done so on the ground that laws which have been allowed for a long course of years to go unexecuted have thereby become obsolete. The spectacle of the Government lawyers reduced to employ this argument would have been more pleasing to good Catholics than edifying to good Republicans.

That the law has never been popular in France is not wonderful. It dates from a bad time. The religious reaction of 1814 was one of the least respectable of its class. It was vindictive rather than reforming, and more anxious to annoy the sinner than to reclaim him. The repose of the workman held but a small place in the thoughts of the authors of the law. They were more interested in securing the observance of an occasional Feast-day which was only recognized by Catholics, than in giving legislative force to the weekly holiday. What is stranger still, however, is that the French workman has never learnt to regard the observance of Sunday in the light in which the English workman regards it. What this light is is very well shown by the reception which the working classes have mostly given to the movement in favour of opening museums and picture galleries on Sundays. The English artisan is not specially devoted to church-going, and he is probably quite indifferent to the alleged antagonism between the opening of these places and the religious observance of Sunday. The change would enlarge his opportunities of amusing himself during his weekly holiday; and if he chose to put the necessary pressure on the Government, he could obtain it without difficulty. Yet he does not put this pressure, although he is diligently called upon to do so by a Society which has been founded for the special purpose of opening his eyes on the question. The reason of this apathy is easily told. He has a very keen fear that, if there is more amusement to be had on Sundays, there will be more work to be done on Sundays. He does not believe, with one of the speakers in the late debate in the French Senate, that there is no need to protect the workman against his master, and that no matter what the law says, the workman will always be sure of the weekly holiday for the simple reason that he will choose to have it. The theory of the English workman evidently is that the security of the weekly holiday would be gone if there were no legal difference between Sundays and other days. He is so convinced of this that he does not wish to see that difference done away with, even in a particular in which it operates to his disadvantage. He believes, rightly or wrongly, that, in proportion as Sunday labour is recognized by law—he does not object to a good deal of it so long as it is not so recognized—the practical exaction of Sunday labour will be brought nearer. A habit of stipulating for work to be done on Sundays, and of including Sunday in the week's wages, and deducting a seventh part in the case of workmen who worked only six days, would, he thinks, grow up by degrees. Weighing one thing against another, therefore, he is content to see a few public galleries closed against him on the one day when he can go to them. He would rather, that is, have them closed than opened under conditions which, as he believes, might leave him no more opportunity of visiting them than he has now.

Why is it that there is no parallel to this feeling in the mind of the French workman? His position with regard to his employer is in no way superior to that of the English workman. He is no better able to resist a demand for more work than the English workman. Indeed it may fairly be said that in this respect his position is very much worse than that of the English workman. The hours of labour in France are very much longer than they are in England; and, whatever may be true of peasants working on their own ground or shopkeepers working in their own business, there is no reason to suppose that Frenchmen working for other people are any more disposed than Englishmen to work longer hours than they are obliged. The natural conclusion from this would be that the French workman, finding himself not so able as the English workman to hold his own against his master, would be proportionately more anxious not to part with a single element of protection which the law happens to give him. If this was the feeling, however, it would certainly show itself in the action of the Legislature. A Bill to repeal the prohibition of Sunday labour, instead of being supported by

a Radical Government, and commanding a majority even in the less Radical of the two Chambers, would have been stoutly and successfully resisted. It is the working-men who are most immediately interested in the maintenance or abolition of the law, and under universal suffrage there can scarcely be a doubt that a vote in favour of its abolition means that the working-men are glad to see it go. Why should French working-men look at the question in such a different light from that in which English working-men look at it? They are not less fond of holiday-making; they are supposed to know very much better how to make the most of a holiday. In the natural course of things, therefore, they should be even more anxious not to see the principle of a weekly holiday broken down, the more so as they cannot complain that in practice the law has ever prevented them from working on Sundays if they wanted to do so.

The explanation is to be found in that passionate hatred of Catholicism which supplies the key to so much in contemporary French politics. The French workman will risk the loss of his weekly holiday, just as he will risk the loss of the right of public meeting, or the right of association, or the right of educating his children to his mind, or of anything else that he values, provided that by risking it he can inflict a similar loss upon Catholics. He does not want to make holiday on Sunday; he prefers to make it on Monday. In England the workman's love of the Monday holiday is intelligible. It is another holiday in the week, a holiday tacked on to the Sunday, not a holiday substituted for the Sunday; and there is much more to be done on it in the way of amusement. In France the Monday is to a great extent substituted for the Sunday, not tacked on to it; and there is no reason in the nature of things why the workman should prefer the Monday. In fact, however, there is the very best reason possible. Catholics like to make a holiday on Sunday, and that is enough to send the majority of the artisans to work on that day, and to fill them with the hope that Catholic workmen may somehow suffer from their determination to treat this particular day as something distinct from the rest of the week. It is nothing to them that the interests of Catholics happen to be identical with their own, inasmuch as both desire a holiday, and only differ from one another as to the manner in which it is to be spent. The agreement goes for nothing, the difference goes for everything. The abolition of the law forbidding Sunday labour will get rid of one more link between religion and the State, and that is an object to bring about which a French Radical would gladly work an additional day a week. Even self-interest is silenced in the presence of theological passion.

SOCIAL AND LITERARY DANDYISM.

DANDIES, like saints, are never much beloved by their fellow-creatures. Like saints, they have an ideal perfection of manner and dress, and ideals are felt to be impertinent. To be a dandy is to outrage the vanity of every one who has not the energy to be wakefully attentive to details of deportment and costume. The great dandies of old days, Brummell, Lauzun, and the rest, were everywhere welcomed because they made themselves disagreeable to so many people. There is a kind of popularity which is acquired by an attitude provokingly unpopular. Men and women are attracted by the courage which despises and disregards their feelings. People whose minute perfections and sense of their own merit make them detested, become notorious, and consequently are sought after. A sage might say to aspiring boyhood, "Young man, be a puppy." In this respect, as in others more important, the prizes of the world are to the impudent. Society truckles to people who can consistently display their conscious superiority. The very magnitude of their insolence and the calmness of their satiety excite curiosity and welcome analysis. People are anxious to judge for themselves as to whether a conspicuously conceited fellow is in earnest and a supreme fool, or whether he is quietly playing a part. Thus the eccentricity of imperturbable vanity, a vanity which declares itself in peculiarity of dress and manners, is rather a good introduction to society. A famous living statesman was remarkable for his canes and waistcoats even before he was admired or feared for his wit or eloquence. Dandyism was to him only a stepping-stone, as it usually is to young people of high ambition and real strength of character. They learn very early in life that to be remarked is the first thing necessary for success, and social is of course more readily attained than literary or political notoriety, and may lead on to these higher prizes. It would probably be a mistake to suppose that "the higher dandyism" is entirely a matter of calculation. The most distinguished dandies in the history of society have been men of great power and ambition

disguised as fops. They have thus disguised themselves, not only because the distinction gained by impertinent perfection of dress was necessary to their projects, but because they could not do anything by halves, and because they were supremely vain. Vanity, a quality much decried, is really necessary for some sorts of success. Without vanity there could scarcely be any ambition. In the evolution of character vanity first declares itself in the love of finery which is remarkable in the child and the savage, and which clings to many generals, statesmen, and divines. The gigantic tailor's and jeweller's bills of a son do not usually make a parent's heart sing for joy; but these bills may, in rare cases, be more full of promise and encouragement than any number of medals and first-classes. It is difficult, however, to get parents and guardians to take this hopeful view, and the young genius for dandyism, like genius for the other arts, is too often persecuted by indignant and terrified relations.

A young man is never more certain of social success than at the moment when most other young men never mention him without saying that they "would like to kick him." As Thackeray observed in the case of Pendennis, that desire is the result of envy and of conscious humiliation awakened in manly bosoms. To provoke people so much is a token of superiority, and a prize of non-chalance. Nor is it social dandyism alone which thus irritates the rabble of decent fellows who have neither the vanity, nor the impudence, nor the strength of resolution to win distinction. Literary dandyism is also excessively annoying to the rugged hodmen of letters, the rapid picturesque writers, the half or quarter-educated persons who crowd the press, and carry their farrago of ill-assorted observations to an uncritical public. These industrious persons detest the literary dandy, the man who minds his periods, and regards the cadence of his sentences, and shuns stock illustrations and old quotations, as the social dandy avoids dirty gloves and clumsy boots. They howl at him as the little humorous street boys bully some small Etonian with a tall hat and a broad white collar, who has lost himself in Seven Dials. This antagonism naturally breeds more excess in literary dandyism, till the prose of some critics is as full of musk or millefleurs as the handkerchief of a popular preacher. Both parties are hardened in their ways; the rough and ready pressman becomes careless even of grammar, and trots out his quotations from Macaulay's essays more vigorously than of old. The prose of the exquisite begins to die away in aromatic nonsense, and his great genius tires itself to death in the hunting for rare exotic adjectives.

There have been schools of literary dandyism, there have been literary dandies, more robust than those of our time. Where we can show nothing much better (if Mr. Arnold belongs to an earlier generation) than Mr. Dowden and Mr. Pater, the great literary ages can boast of Plato, Catullus, Ronsard, Pascal, Horace Walpole, Sir Philip Sidney—nay, one might add, Buffon and Machiavelli. The two last named may be recognized as literary dandies because they respected the mere details of their literary labour. They were not of the sect that swears by tattered old slippers that toast at the fire, and ragged old jackets perfumed with cigars. They arrayed themselves in fine linen, if not in purple, before they sat down to describe the animal kingdom or give rules for the conduct of the Prince. The other writers, whose names we have taken very much at random from a crowd of the greatest authors; were dandies in style, exquisites in literary manners, precisians who turned away from what was commonplace in thought. They lived among slipshod writers, or in ages when all the world scribbled, or in times when style was disregarded, or not invented, and they set themselves to seek after grace and distinction. One can imagine how the Athenians, who were accustomed to the harsh and niggardly style of the old chroniclers, or the half-developed prose of Herodotus, laughed at Plato. That philosopher, if the portrait-bust of him does him no injustice, was very careful about the dressing and curling of his ambrosial locks. It is more certain that he must have given immense labour to the perfection of his style, to that instrument of extraordinary suppleness and grace which was derived from no model. The tradition says that the first clause of the *Republic* was found written in nine different ways in a note-book of Plato's. Whether the legend be true or not, the polish of his manners and the "educated insolence" of his wit sufficiently mark Plato as the great father and patron of all literary dandies. Catullus was not less a literary exquisite, with his airs of a spoiled wit, and his style, like his *novum libellum, arida modo pumice expoliturum*. He naturally takes his place among *homines venustiores*, among gentlemen who care for the attire of their thoughts, who let the toga trail with a delicate grace, and despise all muses *insepida atque inelegantes*. The famous Pleiad of France, the seven poets and critics of the sixteenth century, was a *coterie* of literary dandies. They made it their business to care for the way in which thoughts were presented; they devised lace and jewelry of style and of versification; and boasted of *ceste celeste maniere d'escrire*, a celestial transcendental manner of writing. Du Bellay ventured to discover that the old French of Froissart and Villon was *seabreux et mal poly*, and he and his friends were only the precursors of three or four successive schools of literary dandies in France. Who can consider the polish, the precision, the accuracy of that speech, its point and elegance, which make even dull writers seem witty, and fail to acknowledge that the work of the literary dandies has not been wholly wasted? Some advantage came of the conceit and careful periods even of the elder Balzac. And though the great Balzac of a

later time is more remarkable for vigour than elegance, it was at perfection that he too aimed. Plato did not rewrite his sentences more frequently; and the ruin of at least one publisher, by Balzac's expensive corrections of the press, proved how minutely careful he was to have his thought draped in the very best and richest language he could procure by incessant research. Our own revival of letters had its heroic dandy in Sir Philip Sidney, with his contempt for the slovens and grobians of literature, those "paper-blurbers" who, "by their own disgracefulness, disgrace the most graceful of Poesy." Sidney's censure of the dramatists of his time is a typical example of the scorn of the literary dandy of the nobler sort. "Now you shall have three ladies walk to gather flowers, and then we must believe the stage to be a garden. By-and-by we hear news of a shipwreck in the same place; then we are to blame if we accept it not for a rock. Upon the back of that comes out a hideous monster with fire and smoke, and then the miserable beholders are bound to take it for a cave; while, in the meantime, two armies fly in, represented with swords and bucklers; and then, what hard heart will not receive it for a pitched field?"

It would be easy to carry on the history of literary dandyism. The elegant disdain of Pascal, and his care for polished insolence of irony, might lead us to the reserved conceit and minute toil of Gray, and thence we might pass to the fine gentlemanly literature of Walpole. Modern France had its school of *dandyisme* under the master whom Ouida and the Society journals call by the appropriate name of Beaudelaire. It might probably be demonstrated that literary dandyism has been salutary as well as irritating, that it has served as a protest against the lax language and outworn commonplace of the press-man and the poetaster, and that, like ordinary dandyism, it has made its disciples more distinguished among than beloved by their literary brethren.

THORNS IN THE CUSHION.

BELIEVERS in the operations of Nemesis must have found much agreeable and interesting reading in their newspapers during the past week; and the ingenious author of the *Happy Land* must, we should think, have received important hints for the *scenario* of a new drama. It is very doubtful whether, within the space of about forty-eight hours, three prominent members of an English Ministry ever cut such remarkably sorry figures as the Prime Minister, the Home Secretary, and the Postmaster-General cut between Saturday evening and Tuesday morning. The misfortunes of Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Fawcett bore, moreover, a painful similarity to one another, while that of Sir William Harcourt was, to do him justice, more of the involuntary order than those of his colleagues. Already we have had occasion to notice a singular mania for repentance in the minor members of the triumphant party, and Sir Rainald Knightley's truly diabolical suggestion that Mr. Samuel Morley should be put on the Bradlaugh Committee has given that particular jest a new lease of life. But the apologetic contortions of the minnows are naturally less attractive than those of the tritons. *Ab Jove principium* (which we do not mean to translate, as a student less attentive to the proper construction than to the separate meanings of the words and the facts of the moment might take it, "By Jove, this is a beginning!" but) let us begin with Mr. Gladstone. The stereotyped formula of comment on his remarkable letter to Count Karolyi has been that "probably no such missive has ever been signed by a Prime Minister of England before." We should be inclined to add a sincere hope that no such document will ever be signed by a Prime Minister of England again. If indeed it were possible to identify Mr. Gladstone with England, the letter would be productive of less amusement than vexation to good Englishmen. But, as it would be just as sensible to identify Mr. Gladstone with the country as to identify a fit of scarlet fever with the patient who had incautiously caught that disease, it does not so very much matter. The terms of the apology have been discovered by some connoisseurs in language to be "graceful," but the particular variety of grace which they display would be a little puzzling to indicate. The culprit begins by saying that when he accepted the Queen's commands to form a Ministry he made up his mind that he would not repeat, or even defend, the "polemical language" which he had previously used. Polemical language is a phrase rather neater than is usual with Mr. Gladstone, and we hope that the next offender who appears at Bow Street charged with sins of the tongue will remember it. But it is a little odd that a statesman should confess to indulgence in language which, by his own admission, is utterly unsuited to the part he may have to play a few days after using it. Then comes the apology proper, and an assurance of Mr. Gladstone's "cordial respect for the efforts of the Emperor"—the efforts, be it remembered, which he had previously described in polemical language as those of the ruler of a country "which has been the unflinching foe of freedom," and of which "it was impossible to say that it had done good in any spot of Europe." This lands us in a pleasing dilemma. Either Austria is not the unflinching foe of freedom, &c., or else Mr. Gladstone has a cordial respect for the unflinching foe of freedom. After this, in his usual lengthy fashion, Mr. Gladstone hints that, if he had been supplied with a declaration of the purity of Austria's intentions, he would never have talked polemically. Now, by his own description, he was at the time of speaking only a private person fighting for his seat. From which we gather that it was the duty of the Emperor of Austria to supply every

English candidate with a categorical statement to the effect that he, the Emperor, intended to keep his pledges. The "grace" of this attempt at self-excuse is peculiar. But it has long been a characteristic of Mr. Gladstone's apologies that they never allow himself to have been really in the wrong. In consequence of this custom, several birds are invariably killed by these stones. The offended person is not unduly propitiated, and the apologist has the advantage of having to apologize, with the additional awkwardness of seeming to grudge his apology. Still it would be wrong to quarrel with so great an authority on the art of speaking in haste and repenting at leisure as the present Prime Minister. The garden space allotted to his official residence is not extensive, but it is to be hoped that he has already sent to his new constituents for a supply of the best Musselburgh leeks. The guests at the first Ministerial dinner next Wednesday are sure already of at least two dainties. Mr. Gladstone is known to have no fancy for whitebait. But of cock-a-leekie there should be good store, and a prime humble pie is already in cut at Downing Street.

The Postmaster-General has, so to speak, eaten his leek with a difference—a difference which may surprise those who, disagreeing with Mr. Fawcett in politics, have hitherto had in many ways a high respect for him. Mr. Gladstone's original crime was simply the indulgence in indecent and violent language, which is with him "pretty Fanny's way," and the fault of his apology lies chiefly in the awkward and unctuous verbosity which is also natural to him. But Mr. Fawcett's case is not so pleasant a one. Indeed, to describe it properly, we are almost afraid we should have to borrow the vocabulary of the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. Mr. Fawcett goes to Hackney, describes the courtesy he has himself received from members of the late Government, and then goes on to charge that Government with what, had it been the fact, would have been not merely an act deserving impeachment in days when impeachments were, but one which would also have been impossible to any body of gentlemen or any individual gentleman. After which he was good enough to promise his "assistance" to Lord Hartington in looking after Indian matters. If the Indian Secretary on reading this speech did not with emphasis express the wish that Mr. Fawcett would mind his own business, the House of Cavendish has in its heir a model of Christian meekness. The story which Mr. Fawcett must have got from some backstairs tittle-tattle of clerks was an utterly and ludicrously false one, and received a flat contradiction from Mr. Stanhope with great promptitude. Thereupon Mr. Fawcett apologizes in language which, though not so involved as Mr. Gladstone's, far surpasses the latter in ungraciousness and impropriety. Mr. Fawcett tries in a roundabout fashion to fix once more upon his adversaries the charge which has been shown to be utterly baseless, and "regrets having blamed the Government for not communicating the information" which they had not got. Mr. Fawcett's sorrow certainly does not seem to weigh heavily upon him, and he does not seem to understand too clearly what it is that he ought to regret. However this may be, the duet with his chief is a very sufficient one, and the country, we have no doubt, is proud of the powers of the executors. The Congregational Unions which pass resolutions hailing "the new legislative and administrative era" may have this little exhibition respectfully commended to them. In the hurry of the moment Mr. Samuel Morley forgets his God; in the hurry of the moment Mr. Gladstone forgets history, statesmanship, and international courtesy; in the hurry of the moment Mr. Fawcett forgets the Ninth Commandment. *Redeunt Saturnia regna*. The leader of the new era first makes a blustering attack and then a grovelling apology; and one of his aides first utters a slander and then, forced to retract it, endeavours to make out that it was not so very much of a slander after all. A Radical wit, in the elegant polemical language affected by that party, once designated Her Majesty's late advisers as the Ministry of All the Liars. It was a fortunate anticipation, for otherwise the phrase might have found a different application.

We must almost apologize for classing Sir William Harcourt's misfortune with these. The thorn in his cushion is something of a bull, for the Home Secretary's particular woe is that he has not got a cushion. He is the dark star of the Government Pleiad, the wandering Achamoth of the Ministerial Pleroma. But his mishap, if more ludicrous than those of his colleagues, is also more respectable and more reparable. A Ministry which cannot find seats for its chief members is not necessarily disgraced thereby; a Ministry whose members alternately make false statements and retract them abjectly or grudgingly may perhaps go near to be thought so shortly. Yet at the bottom Sir William Harcourt's troubles have had the same cause, though not quite the same complexion, as his friends. The mania for polemical language which for some years has affected almost all the chiefs of the party (Lord Hartington being almost the only exception) has wrought all this woe. If the Home Secretary could have refrained from vulgar exultation and coarse abuse in his hour of triumph, he would probably not have had to suffer an indefinite period of specially inconvenient defeat. If Mr. Gladstone could have grasped the fact that anybody who did not wish him success was not necessarily the offscouring of the world, he would not, at least on this particular occasion, have been laughed at in every capital of Europe, and have proclaimed his hopeless incapacity for statesmanship simultaneously with his assumption of the reins of State. If Mr. Fawcett could have waited a day or two, or have minded his own business, he would not have had to brook the plain words—"That is not true"—which leave a sting in the soul of every gentleman. Such little accidents as these can of course have no effect—no immediate

effect that is to say—on a majority of some three or four score and a Cabinet of all the virtues. But still it might be well for the Government to put some restraint upon their undoubted capacity for making themselves ridiculous, and perhaps a little more. If they force the pace in this fashion, even they must find it impossible to keep it up. No Cabinet, no Government, can serve up a member hot as the laughing-stock of the country every morning for an unlimited period. A Home Secretary as seatless as a cherub, defeated by the very party over whose utter overthrow he has been crowing his shrillest; a Prime Minister proclaiming himself to have been a windy talker about things on which he was not "supplied with the information" which everybody else had, and dragging his country through the dirt of an apology for which there never ought to have been any cause; a Postmaster-General pumping clerks of Government departments for information like a private detective, and pushing his own colleague out of the way to make false platform revelations on matters within that colleague's province—these are characters and situations of a strength which no dramatist can sustain through the piece. And even if the superhuman power of the chief in this respect should continue to inspire his subordinates with unwonted efforts—if, for instance, an odd little story about a certain interview of a certain Under-Secretary with a certain correspondent should turn out to be true—the laughing powers of the spectators will soon be exhausted. Man may be a risible animal, but none of his faculties are capable of indefinite exertion. It is even just possible—we beg the pardon of the Congregational Unions for the suggestion—that amusement might in time give place to another feeling. It did so, if we remember rightly, once before, indeed not much more than seven years ago. Innocent self-revelations of the Gladstone-Fawcett kind are apt after a time to create a dim notion even in the Congregational mind that there is something wrong. "The Lord's lambs mun' play," as an indecorous story has it. Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Fawcett are undoubtedly "brébis du Seigneur"; but they are surely beginning their gambols with injudicious energy and speed.

THE MUSICAL MAN.

MR. DU MAURIER has of late devoted himself in the pages of *Punch* with great ability to holding up to the derision of the world the silly side of aestheticism. Would-be poets and painters, *dilettanti* and *cognoscenti*, are the victims of his pencil. At times he has attacked the musical amateur, but not with the sting which he employs in other cases. Perhaps it might be argued that there is hardly the scope for ridicule in the case of musical amateurs that exists with regard to the class of people Mr. Du Maurier generally deals with; but the real reason is to be found in quite another quarter. If there is a subject upon which society considers it has a right to speak, it is music. Any amount of nonsense, any quantity of dogmatic assertion, any foolish jingle of empty words, passes in society as musical criticism. Knowledge of the subject matters not, provided the expressions of approval or disapproval are sufficiently vehement, and downright abuse only adds piquancy which the vulgar mind mistakes for satire. It always was and ever will be so. The artist will sneer at the critic's ignorance, the critic at the artist's. There is nothing new in it, and had the case remained so there were no necessity for our present remarks.

Formerly this kind of musical criticism was mainly confined to the newspapers, but now some able professor of the art is to be found in every drawing-room. The musical man, as he is called, as if in unconscious recognition of the superiority of the true musician, is far from the rarity that he was at one time. There is hardly a hostess in London who could not produce one at a few moments' notice to delight the ears of her guests with his views upon music. He is, to outward appearance, much the same as his brethren in the other arts. A plentiful lack of hair on his pallid face, with an abnormal development of the same on his head; a languid air, indicative of the earlier stages of consumption; a sad expression of countenance, as if weary of the ways of men; a looseness of collar and necktie; an affectation of poetical abstraction; and a general effeminacy in movement and posture, are all present in the musical man. So far he is inoffensive enough, and may even become amusing; but it is when we are brought face to face with him that the disagreeable characteristics make themselves apparent. As far as we are able to judge, he has three distinct ways of addressing an interlocutor—the humble, the patronizing, and the insolent. The first he employs whilst conversing with a musician, when his remarks are chiefly confined to monosyllables of affirmation or negation; the second in his intercourse with ladies generally; and the third to all those whom he considers his inferiors, and this is a very large proportion of the human race. As to his claim to the title of musical, it will generally be found to be the slightest. He plays the pianoforte, and sings with more or less success little French or German songs, and will, if asked (he needs no pressing), give his audience a little *chanson* of his own composition. As far as talk about music is concerned, he will talk to Doomsday; but his remarks are dogmatic and void of argument. Most musical men have their musical heroes, though we have met with some who honestly affirm that they are their own heroes. Brahms, Wagner, and now Hermann Götz, can each boast of their musical men, who cannot converse for five minutes without dragging in their own special heroes by the heels; but perhaps the most exasperating specimen of this type is he who has

a musical hero that no one has heard of before, or, at least, that you suppose no one has heard of before. Not to know the writings of Herr Ignatius Brausekopf is a sin that you will not easily be forgiven by such a one, and the full vials of his wrath will be poured out on your devoted head. His dogmatism will show itself in all its terrible vigour. Do you think Rossini a great musician? You will be met with invective against the Italian school. Mozart a master of his art? You will be answered that you are an advocate of tunes. And here, in passing, it may be remarked that this special form of musical man avows himself almost an enemy to melody. Perhaps you may express a strong liking for the intense power of Beethoven; you will immediately be met with a patronizing assent, only to be flooded with praise of the hero Brausekopf. And, for all you know, the poor man whose name has thus been thrust upon your attention may be a most worthy and rising musician who is personally as unknown to the musical man as to yourself. To such nonsense as this is one subjected, and in protest we write, Let every one beware of the musical man if he would enjoy himself at any social gathering. The ignorance of the creature is colossal. One of the tribe, in discoursing in his usual self-opinionated way of the rendering of Beethoven's *Waldstein* sonata some time ago, persistently called it the "Wallenstein" sonata, in spite of charitable attempts to make him see the mistake he had fallen into. Our forefathers were apt to discourage all attempts at the dissemination of musical knowledge among men, giving as their reason that music was only an accomplishment fitted for women and for fools. Had they any foreknowledge of the advent of the musical man?

Who is responsible for this new and rapidly increasing genus? Sorrowfully it must be admitted that women are the fosterers of this unpleasant type of man. Formerly, in fact quite within the memory of middle-aged men, to be unmusical was not considered a sin. Now alas, it is. Not to be able at least to talk upon the subject will, if it does not totally extinguish, at least cast a shadow over your conversational powers. And this is the decree of ladies in society. It is doubtless an easy way of paying a social debt to invite a host of friends to an uncomfortable crush, where each one, after having saluted the hostess, endeavours with all the alacrity at his command to escape from the miseries impending; but such crushes become irksome to the average mortal, and it was necessary to enliven them with some excitement, and what more pleasant than music? Thus music became fashionable. The rich paid heavily for professional performers, but what were the needy followers in their steps to do? The musical man became at once an attraction, and the competition for him increased to a mania. Now this personage, being a Brummagem article, was easily manufactured to meet the demand. Given a certain amount of assurance and a nimbleness of finger at the pianoforte, the rest might be safely left to the tailor, barber, and haberdasher. Thus sprang into life the musical man as we now have him. Of course it is only human nature that he should suppose he really has the ring of true metal about him, and even if he were to fall into a momentary fit of modesty and fancy that he was not the genius he supposed himself, society—that is, the ladies—would not allow him to deceive himself. There was no help for it; so the musical man became society's hero even in spite of himself. Fashion demanded him, and he was produced. This would not have been so had the fair hostesses who cultivate the music mania lived in the time of their forefathers, when music was studied as an art, not as an accomplishment. Sad as it may seem, it is nevertheless true that, although the taste, as it is called, for music is more general, the study of the art is much more rare than formerly. We speak, of course, of those who do not make music a profession. The accomplished young lady of the present day, who plays the most difficult music with facility, could not do what probably her grandmother, let us say, considered a matter of no inordinate difficulty. For instance, we have known old ladies transpose at sight, read a figured bass or score, and show themselves in every way acquainted with harmony and thorough-bass—words which to the ordinary accomplished young lady of our time mean an amount of knowledge scarcely to be attained in a lifetime. In those days men travelled by stage-coach and not by steam, and it appears they studied earnestly and were not driven by fashion. The fact is that those who wished it were educated in music, and those who did not wish it left it alone. Of course there was no room for musical men. Times like those may perhaps come again when a sufficient amount of rope has been granted to these gentlemen to hang themselves, but meanwhile we have to submit to their dictation. As things stand at present, however, five minutes' conversation with any of the ladies who encourage him will show you what the musical man's power is. Even if you are not favoured with his name, you will find that you are considered a fool for not thinking as he does. That he is a tyrant to his patronesses we doubt not, but we fear that even under these circumstances they value the appearance of culture too much to rid themselves of this useful purveyor. We do not know that the existence of this class of men does any permanent damage to the cause of music, but it accounts in a great degree for the large amount of nonsense that one hears people talk upon the subject, and it is a pitiable thing to see persons, otherwise in their right minds, listening to and applauding such rubbish as these musical men give forth. Prigs there ever will be, and they are sufficiently irritating companions, but still they are mostly tolerable in comparison with the musical man. His priggishness is combined with a contempt for his sex and a disgusting effeminacy. We are apt to inveigh against the affectation of manliness in a

woman; but how much more detestable is the affectation of womanliness in a man!

Believing, however, as we firmly do, that there is some use in nature for all created things, we set ourselves to work to find out in what possible way the musical man fulfilled his destiny. For a long time we despaired, and began to think that at last we had found one exception to an otherwise universal truth; but at last we were rejoiced to discover that the musical man, like all other things in creation, has his sphere of usefulness. Indeed, judging from the answers of many ladies of whom we have inquired, he is a veritable treasure, an unpaid private secretary, a confidential agent, a general trouble-saver, the one thing needful to the over-worked lady of fashion. He will arrange, we are told, a dinner-party, write all the invitations, may even instruct the French cook in his own tongue. We have met with some musical men, it is true, whose only recommendation is that they are veiled in mystery. "Who is he?" we have heard asked. "I don't know; but he is charming, and so useful!" comes the answer; "and you meet him everywhere"—the latter part of which we can endorse sorrowfully. There are rumours that the musical man has been known, through sheer gratitude, to be the medium of introducing a wealthy but somewhat vulgar patroness into those regions which take the place of paradise to the opulent *parvenue*. Need more be said? Indeed he has his uses, this gentle, insolent musical man; it is only to be wished that he would stick to his last and leave music to musicians. We fear, alas! that that is just what he will not do.

THE FRENCH STAGE.

THE opposition to *Daniel Rochat*, M. Sardou's play at the Comédie Française, has gradually diminished, and the piece can now be judged on its merits. When we saw it a short time since, any loud expression of opinion, whether favourable or adverse, was rarely heard. It is curious that a people so dramatic as the Parisians should not be able, when their religious or political convictions enter into the question, to separate the author from the characters. They do not wait to see what he intends to do with his personages, but they continually interrupt the action, according as the sentiments expressed give them pleasure or pain; and in newspapers and in conversation the language used is such that one would almost think that M. Sardou had been giving a lecture instead of writing a play. The following, for instance, is one of the passages that raised the loudest storm:—

FARGIS.

Ah! ça! voyons: entendons-nous une bonne fois. C'est donc à toute idée religieuse que vous en avez? Et voilà donc votre programme? Plus de religion.

DANIEL.

Et pourquoi faire? Est-ce que ma raison accepte ce qu'elle ne peut pas contrôler? Est-ce que j'admets que l'on règle toutes les pensées et tous les actes de ma vie sur de prétendues vérités dont on ne peut me fournir aucune preuve? Réveries, divagations, tout cela! Le positif, le réel, le voilà! La terre où je suis né, où je vis, où je meurs! Que mon intelligence s'applique à me rendre ce séjour forcé le plus agréable pour moi; c'est mon droit! Le plus profitable aux autres! c'est mon devoir! Et je serais halluciné d'aller me rêver une destinée chimérique dans les nuages, quand elle est si bien marquée, d'ici à là, de mon berceau à ma tombe.

FARGIS.

Une société sans Dieu.

BIDACHE.

Il y a assez longtemps qu'il nous gêne.

FARGIS.

Il n'y en a plus, c'est convenu! Mais du moins ne commets pas dans ta maison la faute impardonnable que tu as commise ailleurs. N'y salue pas la question religieuse. Tu as une femme éclairée, instruite, dont la religion n'a rien que de sage! Et tu vas compromettre tout ton bonheur pour ce malheureux temple! Eh! n'y vas pas pour toi, vas-y pour elle!

BIDACHE.

Opportuniste!

DANIEL.

Une lâcheté, tout bonnement, que tu me conseilles!

Here are three sets of opinions—the coarse and somewhat vulgar atheism of Bidache, Daniel's faithful friend and most obedient servant; the more polished materialism of Daniel himself; and the common-sense liberalism of Fargis, who has preserved some shreds of belief, and is most anxious, on the grounds of private peace and public tolerance, that all the world should be left to believe or not as they please. It is at first uncertain to which of these views M. Sardou himself may lean; although it seems a matter of certainty towards the end that he is of the opinion of M. Fargis; but the orthodox were deeply shocked to hear infidel sentiments expressed so crudely, and their opponents resented with equal violence the possibility of toleration.

As a piece of dramatic work, it is not likely that *Daniel Rochat*, notwithstanding two or three excellent situations and a brilliant dialogue, will have a lasting reputation. The author is not one of those rare writers who can give a permanent value to that which is written to serve a particular purpose. One merit the play undoubtedly possesses, and it is precisely a merit in which many of M. Sardou's most successful pieces have been deficient. The characters are real men and women, not lay figures pulled by strings of the author's own making. In Léa Henderson, too, he has drawn a real English girl, full of love and tenderness, but firm in her adherence to a creed which is for her a reality, not a form. The first two acts are excellent, but the last three, which belong to a

pamphlet rather than a comedy, are, it must be confessed, exceedingly dull. Everybody discusses the question of the civil and the religious marriage, in turn, and at considerable length. To an Englishman it is inconceivable that Léa should not have known Daniel's real opinions after the opportunities she had had; and, secondly, on the given conditions, it is equally inconceivable that Daniel should have wounded her deepest feelings by declining a ceremony which to him would have been devoid of all meaning. To the first of these objections there seems to us to be no reply; but to the second Frenchmen answer that a man in Daniel's position could not have entered a church or submitted to any religious ceremony. This situation it was M. Sardou's avowed intention to set before his countrymen in the clearest possible light. He did not intend Rochat to be at all an unusual person—as he seems to us to be—but only a leader of the extreme party now in power, whose happiness is wrecked by the exigencies of his political and social creed. The title of the piece might well have been "Extremes." It is throughout admirably acted. Mlle. Bartet realizes to the life the author's conception of Miss Henderson, than which we can give no higher praise. M. Delaunay, who plays Daniel—a part wholly out of his line—shows more clearly than ever how great a dramatic artist he is; and M. Thiron makes of Bidache the coarse and slightly vulgar personage which is requisite for the sake of contrast. Mlle. Jous-sain is delightful as the old lady with a mania for deeds of charity and the distribution of tracts; and the whole is charmingly enlivened by the somewhat romping loves of Esther Henderson and Casimir Fargis, parts which are played by Mlle. Barretta and M. Baillet.

Hardly less interesting than *Daniel Rochat* is a revival of *Britannicus*, in which Mlle. Favart plays Agrippine for the first time. The talent of that really great artist, which it has been the fashion of late years to decry, was never exhibited to greater advantage. She seems all at once to have corrected the defects of her voice, and to have given to it depth and richness; while her expressions and her gestures in the scenes with her son bring back before our eyes that imperious dame of whom Nero stood in awe, and from whose dominion there was no escape except by assassination. The Nero of M. Mounet-Sully has merits, but, like all he does, is sadly unequal; and in the reconciliation with his mother, when he bends over her hand to kiss it, the measured jerkiness of his movements compelled even the solemn occupiers of the stalls to undisguised laughter. M. Volny is Britannicus. He is of the age required for the part; but cannot be said to possess any other merit. Youth alone is not sufficient for success in the impersonation of a youthful character.

Les Noces d'Attila is the title of the four-act drama which M. Henri de Bornier, the author of *La Fille de Roland*, has just produced at the Odéon. The piece is full of fire and movement, and the verse, in which it is not difficult to detect the influence of Victor Hugo, is sonorous and picturesque. The author, however, is a poet rather than a dramatist; his characters talk, but they do not act; and he has an unfortunate habit of getting rid of them when they have uttered a sufficient number of fine lines. In treating his subject he has followed closely the ordinary narrative of Attila's marriage and death, with this difference, that he makes him fall by the hand of Hildiga, a Burgundian princess who, like a second Judith, avenges the ruin of her country. Attila is played with much picturesque vigour by M. Dumaine; and Hildiga by Mlle. Rous-seil, who however lacks "sympathy"; but the honours of the evening are for M. Marais, who enacts Walter, a young French general in love with Hildiga. He comes to Attila's camp to protect her; but, strange to say, the author kills him at the very moment when he might have been of some use to the lady. Into his mouth are put all the patriotic speeches; and, as nature has endowed him with a fine voice, which he knows how to manage, and an attractive person, which he drapes becomingly in the most gorgeous of costumes, he becomes an object of much interest to the audience. For it must be understood that Attila is Germany, and Walter France; and all the fine speeches of the latter, while containing no word that the Censure could object to, have an undercurrent of meaning which the public is not slow to seize. Take, for instance, the following lines, which are besides a good example of the author's style:—

ATTILA.

Donc, pour vaincre Attila tu crois qu'il suffirait
D'un seul homme?

WALTER.

A Lutèce une femme l'a fait!
Les hommes voulaient fuir devant toi—sur la grève
Une femme parut, son nom est Geneviève.
Elle leur dit, "Partez! mais nous vous le jurons,
Epouses, filles, sœurs, mères, nous resterons!"
Ils restèrent. Dès lors, la crainte et l'égoïsme
S'enfurent emportés d'un souffle d'héroïsme,
La vaillante cité de fer se hérissa,
Et quand Attila vint, il eut peur et passa!
Eh bien! j'imiterai la sainte prophétesse,
J'irai trouver là-bas les soldats de Lutèce,
Je leur dirai: Je viens, si je n'ai trop d'orgueil,
Dans vos murs consacrés par la gloire et le deuil,
Créer le point d'appui du monde qui chancelle;
Soyons les artisans de l'œuvre universelle;
Qu'ils s'appellent Gaulois, Francs, Burgondes, ou Germain,
Aux peuples éperdus montrons le vrai chemin,
N'attendons pas les Hautes chez nous, comme naguère,
Dans l'autre de ces loups allons porter la guerre,
Et les vieux étendards, dont nos temples sont fiers,
Jointes aux jeunes drapeaux, sauveront l'univers!

The theatres where long sensation melodramas are usually performed have not been fortunate of late. The Ambigu, however, has revived with some success one of Frédéric Lemaitre's most famous creations, *Robert Macaire*. The original two-act melodrama is played as a prologue to the farcical comedy which Frédéric produced after the great success of his fantastical creation. M. Gil Naza plays Macaire; and though he has to contend with recollections of his great predecessor, is as successful as could be expected in pleasing his audience. The Porte St. Martin is giving *Les Etrangleurs de Paris*, adapted from M. Belot's novel at tremendous length, with all the realistic effects that are so delightful to the Boulevard. It appears, however, to be hardly more than a *succès d'estime*. At the little Troisième Théâtre Français, on the other hand, a well-merited, and let us hope permanent, success has been achieved by a five-act drama with the strange title *Chien d'Aveugle*. It is a story of modern life, dealing with three persons only, one of whom is blinded by his mistress for fear that he should abandon her. The fifth act is unnecessary, but the first four are excellent, and the interest, painful as it is, never flags for a moment. It is a first work of two authors, one of whom is an actor at the Gymnase. His professional experience probably accounts for the cleverness of the principal situations; but it should be added that the development of the characters is natural and artistic, and that the dialogue is fresh and original.

There is yet one matter on which we have a few words to say. Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt has thought proper to leave the Comédie Française. The dramatic critics had the audacity to find fault with her performance of Donna Clorinde in M. Emile Augier's fine play, *L'Aventurière*. On reading the articles of these faithless persons—of whom the Abdiel was, of all men in the world, M. Zola—the injured lady no doubt felt an intense desire to revenge herself on some one. Maggie Tulliver, in *The Mill on the Floss*, kept a fetish for these occasions, which she used to thrash until she had recovered her temper. Apparently Mlle. Bernhardt is not so prudent. She looked about for a victim. A body of critics strong in their unanimity is invulnerable, even to an actress in a rage. Not so, she thought, would be M. Perrin, the official head of the Comédie, a man as innocent in the whole business as ourselves. She probably expected, if she thought at all—for she admits in one of her numerous letters that the next day she was as much astonished as anybody at the action she had taken—that he and his company would approach her on their knees, in humble supplication, as gentlemen and ladies in medieval pictures approach their patron saints, and beg her to return. She must have been singularly disconcerted at the course he actually took. He wrote to M. Augier a letter which gives a singularly agreeable picture of the relations between authors and manager in the first of French theatres; and called the Committee together to consider the legal position of the recalcitrant actress. M. Augier, in a letter as generous as M. Perrin's, entreated them to deal gently with a lady who practised so many arts equally well (or ill), and to reserve their severity for talents less universal and more serious. The Committee, however, felt themselves unable to take this lenient view of the case; nor, on the evidence before us, can we see how they could have acted otherwise. According to M. Perrin's formal statement in the letter above referred to, Mlle. Bernhardt is wrong in her facts. The piece had been rehearsed eighteen times; and, if she had not thought proper to take advantage of those opportunities for making herself perfect in her part, it was her fault and not his. Again, she had twice announced herself as ready to play—on Saturday, April 16; on the Tuesday before, and again on the Friday after, the final rehearsal. Lastly, after the performance, she appeared delighted with her reception, and spoke of her intention to play still better on the following Tuesday. Of course, in a theatre like the Comédie Française, no actress can be allowed to come and go at will. The rules may be severe, but the position is one of exceptional advantages; and those who enjoy them must submit to the control they impose, or be content to bear the penalty fixed by law for their violation of their engagements.

We have been at the pains of investigating this amusing quarrel because we have a sincere respect for the management of the Comédie Française, and a warm admiration, up to a certain point, for the undoubted genius of the wayward lady who has put herself so completely in the wrong. It is the old story of the overstrained string. Not content with a reputation as an actress which a year or two since promised to rival that of the greatest names in the art, Mlle. Bernhardt strove to be distinguished in painting, sculpture, and literature. She became the spoilt darling of a whole coterie of flatterers. Newspapers that live on the doings of the successful or the eccentric had her followed about, and regaled the public with details of her escapades, and reports of her witticisms. The folly of London society last summer completed the work that Paris had begun. With a repetition of that unseemly adulation in view, she was overtasking her delicate physical organization in a feverish preparation for it. To her ordinary occupations she added rehearsals of long and unfamiliar parts. Meanwhile, that which ought to have been her real work, the careful study of parts entrusted to her by the Comédie, was the last thing she thought about. For more than a year she had not appeared either in a new piece or in a revival. It was evident that the quality of her work was degenerating. Her voice was not what it had been. It was only too clear that her heart was not engaged in the characters which she might be called upon to represent. Her eyes wandered about the house, and her by-play became unmeaning. In a word, she had ceased to impersonate,

and had begun to act. M. Sardou was too wise, notwithstanding her reputation, to let her play Miss Henderson in *Daniel Rochat*. And when she did attempt Donna Clorinde, it was plain that she was not at her best. The least severe of her critics admits that any other actress would have been received with a silence that would have told her how completely she had failed. Her Theatre is now showing her that it can do without her. Mlle. Croizette has appeared with success in the very part in which Mlle. Bernhardt failed; Mlle. Bartet has been welcomed with vociferous applause as the Queen in *Ruy Blas*; and though probably she is not what Mlle. Bernhardt was, when she chose—for it was one of her very best impersonations—it must be remembered that Mlle. Bernhardt herself did not play the part at the Odéon in 1872 as she played it at the Comédie Française in 1879. It is sad to think that when she repents, as of course she will do before long, it will be too late. It is not likely that the Comédie, which of all theatres in Europe most dislikes a star, will open its doors to her. She will soon discover that she has lost more than the Theatre by her impetuosity. How will she be able to perform any of her most successful characters without the help of those distinguished artists who formerly surrounded her? What will her Mrs. Clarkson in *L'Etrangère* be without M. Coquelin and Mlle. Croizette; her Marie de Neubourg without M. Mounet-Sully, M. Febvre, and the rest, whose talent gave to the Court of Spain that colour which aided so remarkably her touching delineation of the neglected princess whose heart was frozen by its formality? She may possibly achieve a partial success in London, where the French language and French literature is imperfectly understood, and where the audiences of such performances as hers are likely to be fashionable rather than intelligent; but in Paris it will be different. She is not strong enough, artistically or physically, to be the sole attraction of a theatre. Other artists have left the Comédie in a huff, as she has done; but not one of them realized their fond hopes of independence and success. Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt is not likely to succeed in an enterprise in which Rachel herself failed miserably. With the Comédie she might have been almost anything; without it she will be nothing.

This may be a convenient occasion for noticing an odd and not very sensible performance which took place on Monday last at the Prince of Wales's Theatre, assuming the shape of a representation by English actors in French of *L'Aventurière*, the piece connected with Mlle. Bernhardt's retirement from the Français. Miss Geneviève Ward appeared as Donna Clorinde, and showed a very remarkable command of French accent and rhythm; nor was her acting without considerable merit. Two French players, Mlle. Hébert, or Herbert, and M. Marius, appeared respectively as Cécile and Don Annibal; and their French, although M. Marius showed some traces of his long residence in England, offered an odd contrast to that of the performers of the other parts. M. Marius's acting was exceedingly clever. It must be said that the whole performance of the English players was, as a *tour de force*, creditable; but we cannot conceive what good end is served by such an entirely inartistic undertaking. The praise bestowed upon it must at best be of that kind which might be given to a company of actors who chose to go through a serious drama perched on stilts, assisted by two people walking in the usual way, and succeeded in avoiding a dangerous fall.

OUR LONDON CORRESPONDENT.

WE called attention some little time ago to a curious and apparently authentic account in *Macmillan's Magazine* of "the Genesis of the Times." The present number of the same magazine contains, though not from the same hand, a record hardly less curious and equally circumstantial of the origin, development, and present condition of the London Correspondent of the provincial press, whose power, if Mr. Wemyss Reid may be trusted, has increased and is increasing, though he does not add that it ought to be diminished. The influence of the provincial newspapers, which Mr. Gladstone is never tired of proclaiming, has received a fresh illustration in the result of the late elections, and this seems to have suggested the subject of Mr. Reid's paper. He speaks throughout in a tone of assured confidence as being in full possession of his facts, and intimates again and again that if he chose he could say a good deal more, "but a sense of discretion compels me to preserve a discreet reticence." For the accuracy of his details we cannot of course vouch, but his natural history, so to speak, of this particular development of species is certainly amusing, and has every appearance of being based on fact. That the London Correspondent of twenty or thirty years ago belonged to "a despised order of men" there can be no doubt. The late James Hannay summarily dismissed them as men "who do for money what old women do for love," whose function is "to gossip and retail gossip at so much a column." And the reproach is candidly allowed not to have been an unmerited one. It indicated fairly enough the kind of literary garbage—or "tawdry rubbish," to adopt a phrase of Mr. Reid's—wherewith the omniscient Correspondent of the *Little Pedlington Herald* periodically regaled his readers, who very often were quite content to accept for gospel whatever he was pleased to tell them. And he told a good deal:—

He could tell you the precise words in which Prince Albert had expressed his satisfaction on receiving a certain piece of intelligence; he knew that the Prince of Wales—then verging upon his tenth year—was

already giving trouble in the matter of cigars; he had the latest jest of Lord Palmerston, or the newest display of Lord John's jealousy, at the point of his pen; and as for the "secrets" of the clubs, he had such a mastery of them as must have filled club-men themselves with amazement. He "lounged"—that was his favourite phrase—from the Carlton to the Reform, and from the Reform onwards to the Athenæum or the United Service, apparently having the run of all those august establishments, and being on the terms of greatest familiarity with everybody in them. He was a "silent member" of the House of Commons, and favoured you with strange anecdotes of the smoking-room and the terrace; he was at home behind the scenes in all the theatres in London, and talked of the leading actors and actresses of the day by their Christian names; he was the bosom friend of this or the other great novelist, and furnished the world with remarkable particulars concerning the Oriental luxury in which his friend and patron lived.

As a matter of fact he was probably a gentleman who, in modern slang, was "out of it" altogether, who had never entered a club in his life, scarcely knew a single statesman of the day by sight, and whose thrilling paragraphs were a mixed compound of his own internal consciousness, and "the dull chatter of third-rate taverns." There was clearly, as Mr. Reid observes, nothing sinful, or indeed unnatural, in the desire to know something more of public men and public matters than could be gathered from reports of the Parliamentary debates. And it may be true that "the essayists and gossiping diarists" of the last century to some extent catered for this craving, which, as we learn from Aristophanes and Juvenal, in a still earlier age, when the printing press as yet was not, found its gratification in the gossip of the barbers' shops of Athens and Rome.

But at last "this miserable kind of impostor" who used to trade on the curiosity and credulity of the public began to be found out, and about fifteen or sixteen years ago—Mr. Reid is precise in his dates, and he fixes the commencement of the revolution in "the year 1865 or 1866"—the old order changed, giving place to new. At that epoch—for it was quite an epoch in the career of Our London Correspondent—one or two leading Scottish journals hired special telegraphic wires, which were placed at their exclusive disposal from 6 P.M. till early next morning. It soon however became evident to them that a special wire was of no great use without a special telegram to communicate, and accordingly branch editorial offices came to be established in London, whence arose the new order of Correspondents. But meanwhile a great change had taken place in the relations of the London daily press to the political leaders of the day. When Mr. Barnes was editor of the *Times*, he did not belong to a single London Club, and held no friendly intercourse with the leaders of either political party. But his successor, Mr. Delane, who was courted for his own sake as well as from his influential position, became the recipient of Lord Palmerston's confidence as Prime Minister. He used his information, however, on the principle of *ars est celare artem*, not to produce an impression of special knowledge, but in order to suggest or predict what he knew was in fact going to be done, and thus gained a reputation for sagacity and influence for the paper which could both perceive what was necessary and enforce its convictions on the Government. But that reputation of course declined as the *Times* began to lose its monopoly, and the representatives of provincial journals came to the front. At first indeed they were rudely repulsed, if not positively insulted, by the Under-Secretaries and Lords of the Treasury on their promotion to whom they ventured to appeal. But their pertinacity was indomitable, and if Mr. Reid's information is to be trusted—and he assures us that he knows much more than he cares to reveal—by no means always of the most creditable kind. "Repulsed by the master, the London Correspondent had recourse to the man"; he was not above touting for odds and ends of news among Government clerks and copyists, and, if these failed, there were postmen and messengers to fall back upon. Mr. Reid even assures us, of his own knowledge, that the Home Secretary's private desk was upon one occasion opened by a false key, to discover whether a certain important document had or had not received the royal signature. Moreover, as several country papers had taken Government clerks into their pay, they became the organs of the grumbling and tittle-tattle of the lower classes of the Civil Service. And the Correspondent found another means of picking up stray scraps of information in the practice of "lobbying," that is, getting into the lobby of the House of Commons through introductions to members, and there interviewing his M.P. friends. This led Lord Charles Russell, then Sergeant-at-Arms, to issue an order in 1869 excluding all representatives of the newspapers from the lobby, which is now however overrun with them. But in the same year the provincial press achieved what Mr. Reid considers its crowning and decisive triumph. And it happened in this wise.

Mr. Gladstone's reforming Government had just come into office, and the new brooms were making a clean sweep everywhere. But as one official abuse after another was assailed and doomed, the outcry of the officials naturally grew louder and louder, and they as naturally took advantage of their connexion with the press to air their grievances before the public. The answer of the new heads of the different departments was to appropriate to their own use the weapons of their assailants. Their method of procedure is detailed in the following very curious and circumstantial narrative:—

One day in the beginning of 1869, when as yet the new Government was barely beginning its work of reform, the "London Correspondent" of one of the leading provincial papers was surprised by the receipt of a letter from an important member of the Ministry, inviting him to call upon him at the office of which the writer was the new chief. "Mr. ——" said the Minister when the correspondent had been ushered into the handsome room

looking out upon St. James's Park, where the affairs of one of the great departments of the State were administered, "I have sent for you to ask you a favour. You have no doubt seen that nearly all the London newspapers are attacking me for the changes I am introducing into this office. I have ascertained that many of these attacks are being made by clerks in this department. What I want to know is whether you will be willing to set my side of the case unofficially before the public. I don't ask you to praise me or to defend me, but simply, through your correspondence with the paper you represent, to let the facts about this office become known to the outside world. If you consent, I'll supply you with all the information you require, only making it a condition that you exaggerate nothing, and that you publish nothing which I wish you for the interests of the country to withhold from your readers."

Thenceforth, Mr. Reid assures us, the gentleman in question became the medium of communication between a great department of State and the public at large, and the attacks of the permanent officials were successfully rebutted. And he adds that within a very few years there was not a department in the State that did not make use of the press for the purpose of replying to attacks which could not be conveniently met in the House of Commons; and the whips of both parties, as well as individual members of every rank, recognized the great advantage of this means of establishing direct communication with the outer world. The London daily journals, as well as the Central News Association, have found it necessary to follow the example of their provincial contemporaries in adopting a regular system of "lobbying." And thus finally "the London Correspondent has become a person of exceptional influence and importance," and our legislators are not only willing but anxious to expose to his eyes the mysteries from which twenty years ago he was jealously excluded. Nay, more, the legislators themselves descend into the arena, for "it is notorious that some of the best London Letters published in the provincial newspapers are written by politicians who have made no mean reputation for themselves in Parliament." Mr. Reid declines to discuss at the far end of his article how far this change is an unalloyed advantage, nor have we space to enter into that question here. He intimates pretty clearly however his opinion that the benefits of the change greatly preponderate, inasmuch as it tends to bring the governing body into closer and more direct relations with the people, and to make "the real working of the great legislative machine" better understood by the public out of doors. "We have to educate our masters in something more than the three R's." Be it so; but there is surely another side of the question, though it is too wide a one to examine here. The necessary tendency of this "new order of things" is not only to familiarize the people with the workings of Ministerial and Parliamentary business, but also to bring popular influence far more directly to bear on Ministers and Parliaments, and to give large additional power to "the fourth estate of the realm." That is certainly a very important, and perhaps an inevitable, but it does not therefore follow that it is a beneficial change. Mr. Reid appears to us throughout his paper either to overlook or to ignore it.

WRECK REPORT OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

THIS Report which has been lately issued is not on the whole encouraging. From the abstract which it gives of the returns made to the Board of the casualties which occurred between July 1st, 1878, and June 30th, 1879, it appears that the total losses during that period exceeded those of the two preceding years. The vessels lost are spoken of in the report as "classed" and "unclassed"; the first heading comprising those which were classed at Lloyd's, the Liverpool Registry, and the Bureau Veritas; the second, those which were either classed at one of the smaller registries, or not classed at all. In 1876-77, the total tonnage of vessels belonging to the first category which were lost was 167,491. In 1877-78 it was 148,957; in 1878-79, 189,903. The increase, it will be observed, is very large. With unclassified vessels the case is different, as the number of accidents has happily diminished. In 1876-77, the tonnage of those lost was 123,999; in 1877-78, 120,077; in 1878-79, 108,546. The decrease is certainly satisfactory; but it must not be forgotten that the classed vessels are very much more valuable than the unclassified ones, and that the diminution of accidents to the latter does not, so far as regards loss of property, at all counterbalance the increase of accidents to the former. The totals are:—for 1876-77, 291,490; for the succeeding year, 269,034; and for 1878-79, 298,449. These figures tell a very painful story, and unfortunately they are not the only disagreeable ones in the Report. This contains, according to custom, a statement of the casualties to British vessels abroad, and to foreign vessels on the coasts of British possessions, and gives the annual average, as shown by the accidents which have occurred during a period of five years. It appears that the average number of casualties, other than collisions, causing total loss, is 688½. In 1878-79 there were 710 of these losses. The average number of collisions causing total loss is 30½. In 1878-79 the number was 39. The average of casualties of all kinds—with the exception of collisions not causing total loss, the records of which are deficient—is 3,090½. The number for 1878-9 was 3,198. Certainly the Report does not show that there has been of late any improvement in shipbuilding, or that sailors are becoming more skilful. It must not be supposed, however, that all the facts set forth in the official publication are of this unpleasant nature. There appears to have been, on the whole, considerably more than the usual amount

of misfortune at sea during the year mentioned; but nevertheless some of the returns are decidedly satisfactory. The casualties, other than collisions, to British vessels on the coasts of the United Kingdom were less than in the two preceding years. The losses were 274, as against 294 and 315; and the serious casualties not causing loss, 517, as against 587 and 726. The return of collisions on the coast, which includes those that occurred to foreign vessels, also shows a diminution, being 701, against 795 and 847; and the number of collisions involving total loss is below the average of ten years. This average number is $69\frac{1}{10}$. In 1878-79 the losses from collisions were 64. The casualties, other than collisions, involving total loss of British and foreign ships were also below the average of ten years, which is $410\frac{3}{10}$. In 1878-79 the number of these casualties was 333, the smallest, with one exception, of the whole period. Most important of all, there has been a diminution in the loss of life. In 1876-77, 3,051 lives were lost at sea; in 1877-78, 2,452; in 1878-79, 2,064. It should, however, be remembered that, in the second of these years the list was largely swelled by the loss of the *Eurydice*, and that, had it not been for this great misfortune, the number of deaths in 1877-78 would only have been slightly in excess of what it was in 1878-79. There can now unfortunately be no doubt that the return for the present year will be swollen by a calamity similar to that which occurred in 1878, and that the Board of Trade statement will have to include the loss of 320 lives by the foundering of the *Atlantia*.

In the tables giving the number of deaths from wrecks and other casualties some facts are shown which are well worthy of consideration. The comparative immunity from danger on board large ships is made evident in a very striking manner. In 1878-79 one casualty, causing the loss of two lives, occurred to a classed vessel over two thousand tons. In 1877-78 there had been no such accidents, and in 1876-77 there had only been the loss of one life. A similar proof of the safety of big ships is afforded in the tables, which give, irrespectively of loss of life, a classification according to size of the British ships lost on the coast. From this it appears that during the three years which have been mentioned there have only been thirteen serious casualties to vessels over 1,500 tons, and that only two of such ships have been lost. The largest number of accidents on the coast occur, it seems, to vessels of between 50 and 100 tons, but it must be remembered that most coasters probably come into this category. Of casualties on the coast or abroad causing loss of life, the largest number has occurred to vessels between 500 and 1,000 tons, but this apparently disproportionate amount of accident is to some extent accounted for when the huge number of vessels belonging to this class is remembered.

Some other facts of much interest can be gathered from the elaborate tables of this Report. The superiority of iron vessels is shown in the return giving the build of the ships which were lost on or near the coast during the twelve months. Only 4 iron vessels are returned as having foundered, against 45 wooden ones. Amongst the latter were probably a considerable number of small craft weak in construction and poorly manned, but, even when this is allowed for, the disparity seems great. Another fact well worth attention is shown in the tables relating to collisions on the coast. From them it appears that during 1878-79 collisions between sailing vessels and steamers caused more loss than collisions of the other two kinds, no less than 39 complete losses out of a total of 64 caused by collisions having been due to mishaps of this sort. To what is this large amount of serious accident due? Owners of steamships would say that it was caused by the misconduct of the captains of sailing ships, and by their reliance on the rule of the road as protecting them under all circumstances. Owners of sailing ships would attribute these mishaps to the recklessness of the captains of steamers, and probably would have better grounds for their statement than the others. In any case the fault must be held to be with those who have to administer the law, for there can be no doubt that, if the rule of the road were strictly and consistently enforced, transgressors would be few, since no class of men would continue long to violate an ordinance the breach of which was invariably followed by severe punishment. As it is, it can only be said that the facts set forth in the return are decidedly unsatisfactory. As a set-off, however, against the unpleasant impression made by the return which states them may be mentioned another, which shows how much has been done by a competent administrative department to diminish the dangers of navigation in the British seas. Out of a total of 2,013 casualties to British ships on the coast during 1878-79 only 7 are attributed to the want of lights or buoys. In the two preceding years the number had been yet smaller; and it seems clear that the enormously difficult work of lighting our coast and properly buoying all shoals is at last well-nigh concluded.

Of a variety of other matter of considerable interest which the Report contains want of space prevents us from speaking. On the whole, the impression which the most important of the many facts recorded in it give is, as we have said, unsatisfactory. The comparison of them with those of previous years certainly seems to show that casualties are not decreasing, that in spite of all that science and civilization have done, the dangers of the sea are not diminishing. Lamentable, however, as this necessary conclusion appears, it is not so surprising as it at first sight seems, when attention is given to the facts which from time to time come to light respecting shipbuilding. The most astonishing carelessness still prevails, and in the construction of large and expensive ships

the elementary principles of naval architecture are more or less disregarded. Such at least is the inference to be drawn from the statements made by the Wreck Commissioner in a judgment which has been recently published. "The practice seems to be," said Mr. Rothery, "for the owner," who may be "previously totally unacquainted with ships or shipping matters, to give the builder certain dimensions, according to which he requires the vessel to be built. The builder takes the dimensions, and builds the ship without considering whether the dimensions are in due and proper proportions, or whether the ship when built will be a stable ship, and capable of carrying the cargo which could be put into her." After quoting the evidence of some of the witnesses in the case before him, Mr. Rothery went on to say:—"That gentlemen should invest money to the extent of some 30,000*l.* or 40,000*l.* in a vessel, and send her to all parts of the world, without having previously ascertained whether she is capable of carrying the cargo which they put in her, is to us utterly inconceivable, when at the very small expense, Mr. Merrifield tells me, not more than 20*l.* to 25*l.*, they could have calculations made which would show them to what depth they could safely load the vessel. I do think that there is great room for improvement in this respect." There is too much reason to fear that this case is not by any means exceptional, but that a large number of vessels are built and sent to sea every year with a like recklessness on the part of their constructors and owners. While such incredible carelessness and indifference to all but immediate gain prevails, it is hopeless to expect that the list of grave accidents at sea will become smaller. Whether legislation can mend matters may well be doubted. It would be very hard to frame a law which could not be evaded, and Government surveyors cannot do the work of shipbuilders and shipowners throughout the kingdom. All that can be hoped is that in course of time enlightened self-interest may produce the necessary result. It cannot pay to build ships which, owing to the neglect of inexpensive precautions, are unsafe. Mr. Rothery's statement shows that there is at present not only disregard for life, but also disregard for sound principles of business.

COUNTRY HOUSES AND FRESH AIR.

THOSE that go down to the Thames in search of furnished houses will do well to lay to heart the case of "*Kelson v. Queensberry*." If they are particular about drains and keen in the detection of bad smells, let them before all things beware of agreeing to take a house in the condition in which it is at the time of letting. Without such an agreement the law is merciful. It holds that a house let for habitation should, as a rule, be habitable. But where the tenant has gone out of his way to specify the actual condition of the house as the condition in which he is prepared to take it, the law (*per Coleridge, C.J.*) holds that what the tenant has said, that he must be supposed to mean. It is no matter that he imagined the condition of the house at the moment when he signed the agreement to be a habitable condition. He had no business to assume anything of the kind. The condition of a house at a given moment is the condition in which that house is, not the condition in which some one who has never lived in it supposes it to be. The bargain in this case was express, and as such was not to be set aside by any number of implied contracts, however reasonable they may be in themselves. If Lady Queensberry had employed a surveyor to examine the house on her behalf, she might have been warned in time; but she accepted the lessor's assurance that the drains were all right, and signed the agreement containing the compromising words on which Lord Coleridge laid so much stress. Yet a little suspicion on this matter of drains might have been allowable when negotiating about a house which dated in part from the fourteenth century, and was provided with cesspools which, if not of this venerable antiquity, were probably as old as any cesspools known. One of these cesspools—a disused one—was exactly under the house; so that the family were separated from the ill savour of centuries by nothing but a concrete floor which had been substituted for an earthen floor in the year 1877. The cesspools actually in use were outside the house; but one of them, which communicated with the scullery, was filled with the overflow of an open cesspit covered with a grating. Considering the singularly sickening character of the odours from a scullery drain, this simple arrangement would go some way to account for the annoyances experienced by the inmates. These annoyances were of a decidedly unusual character. Lady Queensberry declared that she had smelt three distinct smells in her bedroom, which seems to argue either extraordinary gifts of nasal discrimination, or an extraordinarily varied accumulation of matter on which to exercise them, or perhaps both. The most striking testimony was that borne by Lady Florence Dixie. This witness had happily been in Patagonia, and in the course of her travels there had come across a dead Indian. Apparently a dead Indian is a remarkably ill-smelling object, for Lady Florence Dixie evidently thought that after this comparison no more remained to be said. Possibly a dead Englishman may in some far-away century have found his way into the closed cesspool underneath the house. The most singular part of the case is the patience which Lady Queensberry and her family displayed under these trials. The plaintiff seems to have behaved properly enough; for after Lady Queensberry's first complaint to him, he offered to cancel the agreement. Lady Queensberry declined this, and continued to live in the house for three months longer. As

late as July she asked an old servant to come down for the benefit of her health, which looks as though she had for a time forgotten the smells. Even Lady Florence Dixie, who had imported the parallel instance of the dead Indian, does not seem to have thought that the odour of the dead was of necessity injurious to the living, for when she went away herself she left her children behind her. It seems a singular house to be chosen, either as a sanatorium or as a nursery, and the fact that it had been picked out to serve both purposes in turn is *prima facie* evidence that things were not quite as bad as Lady Queensberry ultimately came to regard them. Lord Coleridge told the jury that the point they had to decide was whether the thing delivered by Mr. Kelson to Lady Queensberry was substantially the thing which Lady Queensberry had contracted to take, and to this question they could not well have returned a different answer from that which they gave. The house at Marlow may have had many sanitary defects; houses, parts of which are five hundred years old, usually have. But there is nothing to show that Lady Queensberry inquired into the existence of such sanitary defects, or that Mr. Kelson knew anything about them, or had any thought of concealing them. The house was let as it was, and hired as it was; and even when Mr. Kelson offered to let Lady Queensberry off her bargain, she chose to hold by it. It took a quarter's acquaintance with the dead Patagonian to convince her that his neighbourhood was intolerable.

There are two lessons which make this case profitable reading for a large number of persons at this season of the year. One is not to agree to take a house in the condition in which it is, unless they have satisfied themselves that this is a condition in which they would like it to be. If they do enter into such a contract, there is no escape from it, and they had better not add the irritation and expense of a lawsuit to the annoyance already incurred. Lady Queensberry had made no stipulation against the presence of a dead Patagonian in the house, and as he was there and made part of the actual condition of the house when she took it, she was not allowed to raise objections to him founded upon longer and nearer acquaintance. Unfortunately, when people take furnished houses for short periods, they seldom think of their sanitary condition. Either they assume that, as the owner has himself been living in the house, there can be no very unsavoury smells in it, or they think that any slight inconvenience that may arise from this source will not matter for a short stay. It constantly happens that both these assumptions turn out to be unfounded. Either the owner has that singularly obdurate nose which the owners of ill-smelling houses not unfrequently have, or he is himself anxious to be released for a time from odours which even long custom has not made pleasant. It may not seem a very serious matter to have to live for a few months in a house which those who wish to make the best of things call "stuffy," while those who think more of truth than of politeness give it a stronger name. But a smell which is quite bearable so long as it is only a contingent product of the imagination may easily become intolerable when it is experienced as an actual fact. Alarm at possible consequences to health comes to strengthen the tenant's emotion, and in the end he probably leaves the house before his time is up, and prefers to pay double rent rather than one rent and one doctor's bill. It seems a hard saying to tell such a tenant that he ought to have had the house properly surveyed before he hired it; but, hard as it is, it is the only advice that it is of any use to give him. In fact, the shorter the term for which a house is taken, the more particular it behoves a tenant to be about its sanitary condition. If he has it for a good number of years, it is worth his while to lay out some money on it; but when he has it only for a few months, it becomes equally costly to throw up the house and to make it habitable.

The other lesson is that delightful old houses in delightful situations are not necessarily healthy. There was a period in sanitary history when, in order that things should be out of mind, it was sufficient that they should be out of sight. It was essential that there should be cesspools, but there was no reason why they should not be placed exactly under the living rooms of the house. It is sometimes assumed that the danger of bad drainage only exists in towns or villages, and that a house standing in its own grounds is necessarily immaculate in this respect. No assumption can be more unfounded. The danger is precisely the same whether a house stands by itself or is one of a group. It may have no neighbours within ten miles, and yet enjoy all the latest developments in the way of sanitary mischief. Its cesspools may be under the house, and no proper provision have been made for either cleansing or ventilating them. They may be constructed so as to retain their contents, in which case they will always be present to the noses of the inmates, and be inhaled by them at every breath; or the contents may be allowed to drain away into the surrounding soil, in which case the dangers arising from polluted water will be added to those arising from foul air. The best caution that can be given to the intending tenant of a country house is to suspect everything. Unless he can account for every yard of ground underneath his house, there may be some disused and unsuspected cesspool which is the real source of the nuisance which he is vainly trying to abate by improvements in the cesspools of the existence of which he is aware. When he has searched diligently, and succeeded in disproving the existence of any possible cesspool beyond those which he knows of, then—and not till then—he may call his friends and his neighbours together to rejoice with him over the house that he has found.

THE AMSTERDAM LOAN EXHIBITION.

THE Artists' Club at Amsterdam, known generally as the "Arti et Amicitie" Club, from the words inscribed over its house on the Rokin in that city, has lately opened a most interesting exhibition of works of art in the precious metals of the seventeenth and earlier centuries. A Committee was formed of members of the Club, with Mr. Philippeau as its President and Dr. J. P. Six as its Vice-President, to invite the loan of specimens of the handiwork of the old goldsmiths and silversmiths of the Netherlands, not only from private persons, but from municipalities and other corporate bodies, secular or religious. The result of their labours is a most novel and valuable collection, which ought to attract many visitors to Amsterdam, both artists and antiquaries. The exhibition will be open, we understand, till the middle of July. It is to be hoped that a French edition of the catalogue will be prepared before long. At present the only catalogue is in Dutch, and those who are able to read Dutch fluently are but few. Fortunately the works exhibited appeal to the eye of the connoisseur, and generally tell their own story.

The collection, which is displayed in the somewhat confined exhibition rooms of the Club, is not very well arranged. It is not always easy to distinguish the articles on loan from the very similar works of art belonging to the permanent collection of the Club itself. And the numbering of the specimens, at least in these early days of the exhibition, is not successfully managed. The catalogue itself, however, is well classified, and gives a great amount of information. What, perhaps, will first strike the visitor is the fact that the great majority of objects displayed are drinking-vessels of some form or other; indeed the catalogue, so far as it is completed, groups nearly the whole exhibition under the heads of different kinds of flagons or cups. Again, the rarity of ecclesiastical ornaments or utensils in this collection will surprise any observer who is accustomed to the predominance of such articles in any similar exhibition in any other country than Holland. There is not even a special heading for communion cups, and an *avondmaalsbekertje* (such is the concise Dutch expression for a chalice) contributed by the Evangelical Lutheran Consistory of Weesp, and a like one from Alkmaar, are boldly reckoned among the "beakers." We suppose the Reformation, which so completely eviscerated the churches of the Netherlands, was fatal to all movable church ornaments. But we should think, judging from this Exhibition, that no country can show more gorgeous ancient plate than Holland can produce from its municipalities and guilds. Certainly the London Companies, or our old Universities, are less rich in proportion. Amsterdam itself, Rotterdam, Haarlem, Utrecht, Zutphen, Nijmegen, Arnhem, Bois le Duc, Kampen, and Zwolle (both names associated with the beloved memory of the author of the *De Imitatione Christi*), as well as many other towns, are represented in this Loan Collection, besides in addition many Guilds or Companies within them. Messrs. Six, Van West, Becker, Fuld, and Cuypers may be mentioned among the private contributors.

We wish we could give any intelligible description of some of the choice treasures of ancient art here for the first time collected together. But no words can adequately picture to the eye the beauty and fancy and variety of really first-class specimens of the goldsmith's art. Neither indeed can even photography give more than the outward form of such works. The colours of enamelling and the delicate manipulation and tool-marks of first-rate chasing must be seen to be properly appreciated. But we may mention a few of the more remarkable objects here exhibited. Among these must certainly be reckoned the drinking-cup in silver, parcel gilt, presented to the town of Kampen by Johan van Urck in 1551. It is adorned with three engraved medallions of Tamar, Nero, and Esther (a most inexplicable combination), and is a marvel of bold design in the reliefs and figures—women, animals, minstrels, and the like—with which it bristles. It bears this legend:—"Qui bibis hunc cyathum cui sunt munera queris + Largus Johannes Urckius ista dedit." Not less remarkable is the silver drinking-horn of the Guild of Foot-Archers of St. Joris of Amsterdam. This again is embossed with reliefs and medallions in the boldest style of the Renaissance. Its date is given as 1566. Another magnificent work is the copper-gilt enamelled drinking-vessel belonging to the Hoogheemraadschap (the High Board of Dyke Administration) of Rynland at Leiden, wrought in 1687, contrasting well with the more graceful "beaker" (that is, standing flagon) which was wrought for the Bakers' and Millers' Guild at Geppingen in 1684. Both these specimens are crowded with arms, names, and inscriptions. Inscriptions, indeed, generally in Dutch, abound on all these works, and are of considerable historical and genealogical value. They are not often very well chosen, and are sometimes, it must be owned, prosaic in the extreme. We noticed one silver cup, belonging to the Dyke-Administrators of Zeeburg and Diemerdiik, that bears the appropriate epitaph, "Adversus mare luctor."

A separate class is devoted to what the catalogue calls *Stortebekers* (spilling-goblets) and *Molenbekers* (mill-goblets). These are what we should call "heel-taps." They are cups which are suspended on frames, and cannot stand on their own bases. Usually they are in the shape of old women in the costume of the sixteenth century; or else of revolving windmills, or (as in one example) of a Turkish warrior, or else of birds balanced and poised. All these are in private hands. Several are contributed by Dr. Six, a descendant of the Burgomaster Six immortalized in

the magnificent portrait by Rubens belonging to Sir Richard Wallace. Dr. Six, who is a distinguished antiquary, most courteously admits visitors into his house on the Heeregracht, which is full of priceless treasures of Flemish art.

Another group of specimens contains ostrich eggs and coconut-shells in metal settings; and there is a subdivision of what are called Nautilus Bakers. Then we come to horns—of the eland, the buffalo, and other animals—in metal settings, of inconceivable richness, variety, and elaboration. The most remarkable is also the oldest in date. It belonged to the Rhijnshippers' Guild of St. Anne of Kampen, and is dated 1369. The ornaments are groups of St. Anne with the Blessed Virgin and Holy Child, St. Paul, and a magnificent ship in full sail. Most of these belonged to trade or art guilds. Some of them are historical annals in themselves. Thus the silver-mounted horn of the Shippers' Guild of Nijmegen has appended to it by chains no less than ninety-one shields, bearing the names, with arms or monograms, of all the masters of the Company from 1646 to 1810. All who know Van der Helst's *chef-d'œuvre* at Amsterdam, the "Banquet of the Archers," will remember how prominent an object one of these drinking-horns is made in the hands of one of the figures. The next division contains Drinkschalen—that is, drinking-shells, or open bowls. One of these, silver-gilt, was given by the city of Antwerp, in 1581, to John Godin. The inscription is as follows:—"S. P. Q. A. Joanni Godino ob egregiam operam in sopiendis dissidiis quæ religionis ergo ingruebant gratitud. monument." A pair of these bowls, of sixteenth-century work, were marriage gifts, and may be compared (though not perhaps to their advantage) with the well-known marriage dishes or bowls, *bacili* and *bacinetti*, of the famous potters of Gubbio. They exhibit also—just as the Italian bowls do—a most strange mixture of Christian and classical ornaments. For example, the devices on a pair of these bowls are groups of Juno, Venus, and Minerva, and Venus, Ceres, and Bacchus, with representations of the miraculous feeding of the five thousand and the miracle at the marriage of Cana. The same mixture is found in the couplet which explains the latter scene:—"Connubii ad festum Christus cum matre vocatus E lymphæ promit genialis dona Lysei." We pass on to the section headed Drinkkroezen, -koppen en -kannen. These are pitchers, cups, and cans; but our English terminology of drinking-vessels is less scientifically accurate than the Dutch. Two of those are very ancient, being dated 1341, and both having belonged to the Archers-guild of Kampen. One (No. 163), of fifteenth century date, is ornamented with religious groups and inscriptions, one of which has not been accurately deciphered by the compilers of the catalogue. Had they been familiar with the famous Christmas carol "*Quem vidistis pastores?*" they would have known that the words which they give as "*dicit (ur?) annua pat(e)r*" are really "*dicite, annunciate.*" Here is a somewhat ghastly inscription from a bowl of 1669:—

Die dese becker gaf
Leeft eeuwig by sijn Godt,
Wyl 't lichaam in het graf
Tot zwol vast legt en rot.

Perhaps the most sumptuous specimen in the whole exhibition is a kind of flagon of sixteenth-century work, lent by the Grand-Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, one of the few contributors to this collection who live out of Holland. It is made up of three magnificent enamels, held together by rich metal-work. The enamels, which are superbly coloured, and not over-modest in design, represent three Old Testament heroines, Jael, Judith, and the woman who "all to brake the skull" of Abimelech. The catalogue erroneously puts Deborah in place of the woman of Thebez. The last specimen which we shall notice is a most remarkable rose-water dish and ewer of seventeenth-century date, of boldest Renaissance design, with subjects from Pagan mythology. It is exhibited by the Guardians of the Popta Hospital at Marsum. In addition to the catalogued specimens there are countless metal badges, collars, crowns, circlets, insignia, and staves of office, civil and military; quaint owls and conventionalized birds for the table; keys, spoons, candlesticks, watches, snuff-boxes, and fans; book-covers (chiefly ecclesiastical), with metal reliefs, and costly jewelry; ivories in precious mountings, some metal statuettes in the round, and any number of swords, lances, and other weapons. The ecclesiastical works are, as we said, few in number, and not very remarkable. There are one or two silver-gilt Renaissance shrines, a processional cross in coarse *repoussé* work, and two or three monstrances, thuribles, pectoral crosses, and candlesticks. The specimens are almost exclusively of Low Countries workmanship, and are more remarkable for boldness, vigour, and exuberance of fancy than for delicacy or refinement. But the exhibition is exceedingly worth seeing by all who value archaeology or art.

In conclusion, we notice that some attempt has been made to supplement the exhibition by a collection of old tools used in metal-chasing, engravings of other famous works of the same kind, and portraits of eminent metallurgical artists, together with some original broadsides, advertisements, &c., of some of the latter. No Dutch artist is likely to become as famous in the annals of art as Benvenuto Cellini. But the names of Van Mierevelt, of Adam and Paul and John van Vianen, of Mayr, of Theodore Rogiers of Antwerp, of Quintinus a fossa, and Lutma of Oudely, ought to take their place amongst the roll of distinguished artists. Only a few of the works here exhibited can be accredited to their

authors; notably one or two to Paul van Vianen, of Utrecht. One specimen is inscribed, "J. Pieteresen inventor, H. Middelhuygen fecit." We may be permitted to commend to the Artists' Club of Amsterdam the expediency of keeping open this unique exhibition till the close of the autumn. Many English visitors might wish to see it who could not easily leave home before the Long Vacation.

THE TRADE OF APRIL.

THE Board of Trade returns issued at the close of last week are the most satisfactory that have appeared since the commercial revival began at the end of the summer, and they are more especially satisfactory because of the complaints of renewed depression which have been rife of late. Of course it is possible that the large increase of the exports which, as we shall presently see, took place last month, may have been due to orders given in the autumn and winter, and only executed in April, and that when those orders have all been completed, a great decrease may manifest itself. To some extent we are prepared to find that this will be the case. The fall in prices on which we commented a couple of weeks ago proves that business is not now as active as it was a little while ago. Nor can it be doubted that some of the orders given while the speculative fit was hot have been cancelled, those who gave them paying forfeit for the privilege. But, as we pointed out when considering the fall of prices, there is nothing to show that the causes which produced the revival have spent their force; on the contrary, there is much to lead to the opinion that the check is merely temporary. Without, however, dwelling further on these considerations, let us pass on to the examination of the Board of Trade figures; and in the first place let us turn our attention to the exports, which declined so greatly during the long depression as to quicken once more into activity the old protectionist craze.

The exports of British and Irish produce last month were of the value of 19,623,360*l.* against 14,642,358*l.* in April of last year; an increase in round numbers of almost 5 millions sterling, or just 34 per cent. For the first four months of the year the increase was only 14,170,000*l.*, or less than 25 per cent.; so that, while for the four months since the end of December the exports in comparison with the same period of last year have not increased quite one-fourth, in April alone they have increased more than one-third. In other words, our foreign customers have gone on doing with us a better business as time passed on. But, as we remarked above, new orders are not now as numerous as they were some time ago. Part of the increase in last month's exports is due to the rise of prices witnessed since the spring of last year, and part to an augmentation of quantities; but without such an analysis as was made by Mr. Giffen when he undertook to show that the decline of exports which was creating apprehensions for our commercial future was chiefly a shrinkage of prices, it would be impossible to attribute to each its share in the increase, for the reason that in many cases the quantities are not given. As regards the commodities exported in larger quantity or value, they are so numerous as to afford reasonable ground for believing that the revival is no temporary spurt, but a real and general improvement. Amongst them we find woollen manufactures of all kinds, woollen yarns, and wools, silk manufactures, tin, telegraph wires, paper, seed oil, machinery and mill-work, linen manufactures, lead, iron and steel, haberdashery, glass, cotton manufactures, and chemicals. We have given this list without any attempt at classification, without even an indication by the order of enumeration of the relative importance of the commodities mentioned, our object being solely to show that the improvement is not confined to this or that leading item, but is so general as to render it highly improbable that it can be passing or accidental. If we confine our attention to the most important articles, we find the returns equally satisfactory. Thus the total of iron and steel of all kinds, manufactured and unmanufactured, exported last month, amounted to 455,191 tons, against 227,989 tons in April of last year, being an increase in quantity of 227,202 tons, or, as nearly as possible, 100 per cent. In value the increase was from 1,481,466*l.* to 3,203,378*l.*, being 1,721,912*l.*, or over 116 per cent. The increase here is greater in value than in quantity, though not nearly so much as might have been expected from the great rise of price during the twelvemonth. But it is to be borne in mind that old iron bears a much larger proportion to the total last month than it did twelve months ago, being 40,415 tons last month, against 4,451 tons a year before; in other words, while the total export of iron and steel was barely doubled, the old iron exported was multiplied nine times. Yet, even when we make allowance for this circumstance, it is evident that the orders executed last month were placed very favourably for those who gave them. Thus, for example, the quantity of railroad iron of all sorts exported increased 108 per cent. and its value only 146 per cent. We have thus confirmation of the opinion that last month's exports were but the execution of orders long since given.

As regards the countries to which the increased exports of iron and steel went, the United States stand first, but British North America, India, and Australia likewise purchased much more largely than before. In cotton manufactures, again, of which the quantity is given, there is an increase in yards of 23

per cent., and in value of 35 per cent. It would seem, however, that the rise of prices is really much greater than this. As our readers are aware, there is a dispute in Blackburn between the manufacturers and the weavers as to wages, and the operatives have not been slow to point to the increase of exports last month in support of their case, urging that, if an increase of wages can be given to the spinners though there is a falling off in the export of yarn, *à fortiori* may the concession be made to them. But it is replied that the increase is in light goods, and in length only, in weight there being a decrease. If this be so, it is evident that the rise of price is very considerably more than it appears from the Board of Trade returns. With this illustration before us of the impossibility of determining how much of the increase even in a particular commodity is due to improvement in prices without knowing the difference in quality of the exports we compare, we may perhaps be excused from carrying further the analysis we have made in the case of iron and cotton. Broadly, we may state that there has been an augmentation both in quantities and values, and for our present purpose that is enough. In cotton piece goods the increased exports were to British India, the Straits Settlements, Turkey, Egypt, Brazil, Chili, British America, Japan, and the Philippine Islands. In woollens they were to the United States, British America, India, China, and South America. It will be seen from these lists that the enhanced demand does not come from the United States alone, any more than it is confined to a particular class of goods, though the purchases of that country first gave the impetus towards revival, and still are most important of any. It will further be noticed that the cessation of famine in India and China has instantly made itself felt, more especially in the new life it has imparted to the cotton industry. In the four months of the current year there have been imported into Bombay alone about 7½ million yards of cotton piece goods more than in the corresponding period of last year; into Madras about 6 million yards more; into Bengal about 66 million yards more. We have in these figures evidence of the correctness of what has often been urged in these columns—namely, that the long depression which caused so much alarm was really due to the temporary failure of the purchasing power of our chief customers, rather than to any fault of our own, and that, with the recovery of those purchasers, our industries would once more start into activity. This is what is actually happening.

Coming in the last place to the imports, we find in them also an increase of value of 6,876,000*l.*, or about twenty per cent. The increase is found in the raw materials of manufacture, as well as in articles of food—as, for example, in wool, wood, tallow, unrefined sugar, lead, jute, iron ore, hides, and cotton. But in these the rise in prices seems to play a greater part than the increase of quantities. Even raw materials vary considerably in quality, the produce of some countries being either intrinsically superior to that of others, or being sent to market in better condition; while in the same country crops vary with the seasons. Still quality does not count for so much in raw materials as in finished goods. Besides, there are cases, as, for instance, tanned hides, where with a decrease of quantity there is an increase of value. But it is in articles of food that the principal increase of the imports is found, constituting about 2½ millions out of the 6½ millions of the total increase. In other words, while the total increase in the value of the imports amounts to 20 per cent., in articles of food it is as much as 30 per cent. In wheat alone the increase for the month exceeds 900,000*l.* From the beginning of the agricultural year—that is, from September 1 to the end of April—the total imports of wheat amounted to 9,280,292 quarters, being an increase of 1,977,726 quarters over the corresponding period of last year, or between a fifth and a fourth. Considering the badness of the last harvest, and the estimates of our requirements that were then current, this is a very moderate augmentation. With two-thirds of the agricultural year already over, our wheat imports but slightly exceed half the estimate put forward on good authority last autumn. Even if we include the wheat flour imported, the total but slightly exceeds 11,300,000 quarters. These figures illustrate anew the inevitableness of exaggeration in the presence of disaster, and the readiness with which consumption adapts itself to price. But to come back to last month's return; we find a small increase in the quantity of coffee imported, and also in that entered for home consumption, and a very large increase in both items in the case of cocoa, especially in the home consumption. In tea, on the contrary, there is a large decrease under both heads. In all these articles there have been very heavy losses, the speculative rise of prices having been excessive, and the consequent fall severe. It is, moreover, noteworthy that the imports of refined sugar fell off very considerably both for the month and the four months, while those of unrefined sugar decreased but slightly for the four months and actually increased for April. Our readers are aware of the complaints of our sugar refiners, insisted upon for years, that they are being ruined by the competition of bounty-fed sugar. An increased import of the raw material for refining, accompanied by a decrease of the bounty-fed refined article, certainly does not suggest ruin.

REVIEWS.

HISTORIES OF THE HUGUENOTS.*

THESE two works are like the beginning and ending of a great whole, the middle part of which is wanting. We may regard Mr. Poole's work as a kind of unintended sequel to Mr. Baird's, or may regard Mr. Baird's as an unintended introduction to Mr. Poole's; but in either case there is an evident gap between them, and the missing link is not the least important or least interesting portion of the great tragedy of French Protestantism. The American Professor includes within his two thick volumes a period of fifty years, closing with the death of Charles IX. in 1574. Throughout the main part of his first volume he runs side by side with Merle d'Aubigné, and there is no conspicuous difference in their religious point of view, though Mr. Baird has a firmer grip of the political aspects of the French reforming movement, and of its relation to the general history of Europe, than D'Aubigné had. His scene lies almost wholly in France, though he is of course obliged to travel to Geneva, since the extra-national throne of the successive pontiffs of French Protestantism, Calvin and Beza, was erected in that city. Mr. Poole begins with the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, merely prefixing a summary account of the state of the Huguenots in their own land under the qualified and insecure toleration with which they had to content themselves prior to the Revocation. His scene lies principally out of France; he follows the Huguenot emigrants into England, Ireland, America, the Low Countries, Germany, Switzerland, and the various nations and cities in which the French fugitives found settlement. The reigns of Henry III., Henry IV., Louis XIII., and nearly fifty years of the reign of Louis XIV., lie unchronicled in the long interval between the two accounts. Hence the two books, when taken together, notwithstanding the conscientious ransacking of newly-opened materials and the scrupulous re-examination of the older materials which characterize both writers, give but an incomplete picture of the Huguenot drama. When Mr. Baird closes his work, we look upon French Protestantism as a mighty political force, identified with the hopeful cause of the Bourbons, and contending for domination in France. When Mr. Poole begins, the Bourbons have been triumphant for nearly a century, but their old ally, Protestantism, has sunk into a mere religious party; it has lost its original importance as a great political force. The decisive moments in the fate of French Protestantism are to be found in the omitted interval between Mr. Baird's subject and Mr. Poole's. It is of the first importance to remember that during this interval the French King had succeeded to the place which was held at its beginning by the Spanish King; he had become, so to speak, the real secular chieftain of Latin Christendom. What the Holy Roman Emperor was in theory, the "Most Christian Kings" of France became in fact, and they became so with the help of the Protestants. From the middle of the sixteenth century to the middle of the seventeenth, a whole succession of French monarchs and statesmen frowned upon native Protestantism, or during its breathing-time treated it but coldly, while they smiled upon foreign Protestantism. To put it down as a disintegrating force in France, and to encourage it for the same reason in Germany, was the policy alike of Francis I. and Henry II. and of Cardinal Richelieu. The measure of toleration which the Huguenots enjoyed under Richelieu and Mazarin was in great part due to the need of standing well with the Protestant princes and States, though both these great Ministers were too much of statesmen to be religious fanatics. The able writer of the "Interest of Princes and States" observed, a few years before the Revocation, that a great change had already occurred in French policy in 1680; no longer in any fear of Spain, the French had taken to "personating," as he puts it, "a great concern for Popery, that they may be no more thought, as formerly, Heretical Papists, but, on the contrary, the most zealous of that Church." The modified anti-Popery of the great Gallican clergy under Louis XIV. exhausted French Protestantism of what force it had as a protest against the extra-nationalism of the Vaticanist system; though indeed it must be added that French Protestantism was never so fundamentally national as French Catholicism, while during the period described by Mr. Baird it was little less Ultramontanist than French Romanism, its ultimate court of appeal sitting in Geneva instead of in Rome, and its fountain of pure doctrine flowing from the shores of Lake Lemana instead of the banks of the Tiber. If Bossuet and his followers had been indeed Gallican Catholics rather than Gallican Papists, if they had not left a small Papal rift in the Gallican late, the splendid intellectual and industrial forces madly expelled from France by the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and scattered abroad to enrich rival nations, must have been absorbed into the national Church. The noblest ecclesiastical traditions of France, maintained by Hincmar, by St. Louis, and by Chancellor Gerson, would have found a logical completion, and the subsequent history of the French people would have been less volcanic than it has been.

Mr. Baird's volumes include all the great determining moments

* *History of the Rise of the Huguenots.* By Henry M. Baird, Professor in the University of the City of New York. 2 vols. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 1880.

A History of the Huguenots of the Dispersion at the Recall of the Edict of Nantes. By Reginald Lane Poole. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

in the development of Huguenot history as far as the St. Bartholomew Massacre—the “Erasmian” epoch of the French reformatory epoch, when all that was best in French scholarship and piety inclined to the party of reform; the wavering attitude of Francis I., and his attempt to draw Melancthon into France as a conciliator; the episode of the savage placards against the Mass, and the subsequent expiatory processions; Calvin’s flight from France and settlement in Geneva; the political supremacy of the Guises; the colloquy of Poissy; and the Edict of January 1562, by which the Queen Mother, Catharine de Medici, gave proof that her political inclinations leaned towards the side of reform, as she had borne witness in the year before when she sent a defence of the Huguenots to Rome, declared that they were neither Anabaptists nor Libertines, that they held all the articles of the Apostles’ Creed, that they ought not to be cut off from the communion of the Church, and that it would be advantageous to the Church if many of their demands were accepted, such as the removal of images, the abolition of a great part of the ritual, the administration of the Eucharist in both kinds, and the adoption of public worship in the vulgar tongue. Mr. Baird is so possessed by the conviction that nothing but that Presbyterian Protestantism which was afterwards definitively formulated, through a series of accidents, can have any logical title to admiration, that he everywhere shows himself as incapable as D’Aubigné was of doing justice to a sober *via media* party, to “Erasmians” and “Nicodemites.” Bishop Briçonnet, Gerard Roussel, and even Faber Stapulensis, seem to be objects of his patronage and pity. He has not the heart or imagination to do justice to the earliest, most learned, and most attractive school of French reformers. He evidently prefers a very Hudibras to a Mr. Ready-to-Halt, though the preference is manifested rather in his manner of treatment than in actual statements. In his chapter on the early unCalvinist Reformation at Meaux under Bishop Briçonnet, which is compiled with conscientious study, and most pleasantly written, he flings a number of damnable epithets and expressions at the representatives of the unpuritanical middle party. The occasional savagery and hot-headed intolerance of Farel are kept in the background; the entire plan which he had in view alone is dignified as “The Gospel.” While Mr. Baird was composing his history and turning over the rich mass of materials which are now open to the student, he missed the deepest and most permanent lesson of the Huguenot tragedy by his tacit and uninquiring acceptance of the hypothesis that every Frenchman was obliged to be either a formal Papist or a formal Calvinist. Hence Bishop Briçonnet’s natural hesitation to plunge forward headlong into the unknown and untried darkness whither the Hotspurs of the movement were wildly dashing is stigmatized by Mr. Baird as “pusillanimous defection.” If he does not openly sneer at the great scholar Faber Stapulensis, and at the high-minded and eloquent Gerard Roussel, when they take refuge at Strasburg, by shouting after them “prudent reformers!” and by following them with cries of “cowardly souls,” “paltry evasions,” “timidity,” and “excessive caution,” he does his best to degrade them by contrasting them with the “fearless athlete,” the young Farel. He might have remembered that the pious Bishop and the great Humanist had been life-long Gallicans and Reformers; while Farel, always in extremes, had been an ultra-Papist. He was at least as intolerant in his Protestantism as he had been in his Popery; no sooner had he arrived in Basel than he began to rail at the venerated Erasmus, who was then the guest of the city, as a “Balaam.” The gentle Oekolampadius, the reformer of Basel, had to remind him that “men can only be led to the truth, they cannot be driven to it.” That Mr. Baird knows how to apologize when he finds a wrong-doer whom he thinks deserving of a good word, is clear enough from his long note of three pages of special pleading on behalf of Queen Margaret of Navarre in her character as the author of the *Heptameron*. Mr. Baird’s royal portraits are always lifelike; and, as the history of the Huguenots during the fifty years included in his volumes is the history of France, he has painted a whole series of kings, queens, and statesmen. The authorship of the *Heptameron* ought to have been placed to Margaret’s credit, or discredit, when she is first introduced to the reader; it is too characteristic of that wonderful woman and her surroundings to be mentioned in an appendix, as if it were a purely accidental excrescence. It shows that the scholarly lady, who was at once a Catholic and a Protestant, and who saw no inconsistency in being both at the same time, was amusing herself with the unseemly gallantries of Boccaccio’s *Decameron*, while she was sending out her colporteurs to sell jewelry and distribute New Testaments to the young girls of southern France.

Mr. Baird is far more at home in the political history of France and of contemporary Europe than our English religious historians usually are, or at least than they have been until late years. He is a faithful, if a somewhat partial, chronicler of all the main events which lie between the famous “Bath of Blood” at Vassy, with the consequent outbreak of the first civil war, and the St. Bartholomew Massacre, and he tells his story so well that it cannot fail to interest the reader. He might have added fresh light from the State archives of Zürich, Bern, and Basel, if he had consulted the late Dr. J. C. Mörikofer’s *Geschichte der Evangelischen Flüchtlinge in der Schweiz*, a book which deserves an English translation. The Swiss, after their manner, fought in both camps during the French civil wars, and the Federation was courted by both parties. At the Tagsatzung at Solothurn, in April 1562, Coignet asked for three or four thou-

sand men for the French King, while Condé and Chatillon urged the Evangelical cantons to oppose the demand. Bullinger not only stopped the Council of Graubünden from sending help to the Guises, but prevailed on Hercules of Salis and Ulrich Philip of Hohensax to take arms under Condé. On two critical occasions—on the road from Meaux to Paris, and at the battle of St. Denys—the bravery of Swiss mercenaries decided the victory in favour of the Catholics, and the French ambassador, Bellièvre, was directed to inform the Cantons of the fact. Ninety of the Evangelical Swiss warriors who had been enlisted to fight against their French co-religionists, and who deserted from the royal camp at Troyes, were cut down in mistake by the Huguenots. At the end of his chapter headed “The Year of the Placards,” Mr. Baird indeed refers to “an appeal” from the city of Strasburg and the city of Zürich, and to “a formal embassy” from the cantons of Basel and Bern and the city of Strasburg, to Francis I. on behalf of his persecuted Protestant subjects. The championship of the French Huguenots, and of the Vaudois of Provence, by the four “*Evangelische Städte*,” Zürich, Bern, Basel, and Schaffhausen, was not exceptional, but repeated and continuous for many years. Mr. Baird gives the reply of Francis to the Evangelical cities in 1537, though he does not cite the pithy report of the embassy which Bern communicated to her confederates:—“The King was much more gracious at the beginning of his speech than his written answer afterwards turned out to be. The ambassadors had done their best, and dealt faithfully, but received answer according to a Court’s manner (*nach Hofe Art*).” Ten years later the Evangelical cantons were still begging the King to show some mercy to their persecuted co-religionists, and only a short time before his death Francis wrote to his “*Très chers et grands amis*” of Zürich, Bern, Basel, and Schaffhausen, expressing his anger at their repeated interference with his administration and government of his own subjects, which he carried on “*comme un bon prince doit*”; he said that he was astonished that they should give the name of cruelty to “*la Pénitence que nous faisons faire à ceux qui ont commis plusieurs Rebellions et Désobéissances à l’encontre de nous*”; he asserted that the rebels did not “follow the evangelical verity of which you say that they have made profession,” but that “the Vaudois and other heretics whom we have caused to be punished hold such errors as no prince nor community in Germany would tolerate in their countries”; he ended by warning “his dear and great” Swiss allies that they must cease using “*de tels si étranges termes comme Cruautés et Horribles Punitions, afin que nous n’ayons occasion de vous faire Rude Réponse*.” Here we see the key to the attitude of Francis. So long as he thought a mere scholastic quarrel was going on, he took side with the reformers as a patron of letters, but when he perceived the political tendency of the new movement he became its foe in his own kingdom. When we read “*Le Conseil de Zurich*,” and “*Le Conseil de Berne au Conseil de Bâle*,” as the sources of Mr. Baird’s statements, although he urges us to “*Of the documents, mostly inedited*,” we perceive that he is making use of some French writer, and not of the original German or Latin documents in the “*Staatsarchive*” of Bern, Zürich, or Basel. Mr. Baird is a severe critic of English historians who have gone astray in their references to his province of study; he hunts down and exposes Mr. Froude for his ill-chosen source of material for his description of the massacre at Vassy; he detects the chronological slips of his fellow-countrymen Mr. Motley and Mr. Prescott. Though his own *tendenz* as historian sets in the same direction as D’Aubigné’s, he is keen enough to perceive that the latter too often plays the historical novelist rather than the historian, especially when he deals with his idolized hero, Calvin. Mr. Baird closes his picturesque and diffuse narrative in the same temper as a dramatic author closes a tragedy in which the hero of a cause ultimately defeated in actual history figures episodically as a conqueror. The curtain does not fall upon the St. Bartholomew Massacre, but upon the judicial death of Charles IX., and the spectator is asked to regard the Huguenots as having “survived four sanguinary wars into which they had been driven by their implacable enemies,” as “just entering upon a fifth war under favourable circumstances,” and as standing “before the world a well-defined body, that had outgrown the feebleness of infancy, and had proved itself entitled to consideration and respect.” He thinks that “they had made it manifest that their success depended less upon the lives of leaders, of whom they might be robbed by the hand of the assassin, than upon a conviction of the righteousness of their cause.” But “the hand of the assassin” struck at the leaders on both sides, and if the Bourbons owed much to the Huguenot enthusiasm, what did the Huguenots become when Bourbon leading failed them?

Mr. Poole’s little book was originally a University essay, written in competition for the Marquess of Lothian’s historical prize. Like Mr. Baird, Mörikofer, and all the recent French and German writers in the same province, he has made a very full use of the exceedingly rich volumes of the *Bulletin de la Société de l’Histoire du Protestantisme Français*. Apart from its genuine merits as a methodically planned and well-written contribution to “culture-history,” Mr. Poole’s work has no small bibliographical worth as a book of reference, for he has evidently made a conscientiously exhaustive study of the whole literature of his subject, English, French, German, Dutch, and Swiss. He scrupulously clenches every statement in his text with a verifying note; indeed his chief faults are the very pardonable ones of over-citation and over-illustration. He is usually broader, fresher, and less biassed in his judgments

than the American professor. We should hardly expect from Mr. Baird such a graceful and grateful homage to "the honoured name of Edward Bouverie Pusey" as Mr. Poole has rendered. He might have had a fresh glimpse of the emigration of the so-called "Palatines" in 1709 by looking at the interesting journal of the Quaker missionary, Thomas Chalkley, who sailed with a number of them from the Thames to the Delaware. In his remarks on the relation of the Huguenots to the Church of England, and to the Revolution of 1688, Mr. Poole contends that they "helped not a little to formulate the public opinion that offered the kingdom to William of Orange." He complains that this "fact" has been too commonly ignored by our historians, and cites as his witnesses three foreigners, all of whom are Frenchmen, and one of them is Michelet. He either ignores, rejects, or is unaware of the powerful letter which the Huguenot ministers in Germany addressed to their brethren in England, blaming them for their blind and weak compliance with the policy of James II., and urging them to follow the brave leading of the English episcopate. The Huguenots on the Continent saw through the King's Declaration of Indulgence, and accused their brethren in England of "contributing to re-establish Popery in their new country" by joining those Dissenters who had published the declaration or addressed the King to thank him for it. "Is this," they ask, "to answer the glorious quality of confessors, of which you so much vaunt yourselves? Could you see those faithful servants of God (the Seven Bishops), with a zeal worthy primitive bishops, disobey the order of their sovereign, suffer imprisonment, and prepare themselves to suffer anything rather than betray their consciences and their religion, without admiring their constancy and being touched by their example? How is it that the generous refusal of the Bishops, though at the peril of their liberty and estates, to publish the declaration in their dioceses should not at least have opened your eyes? Reflect a little on what we have here said, and you will confess that we have reason to commend the conduct of the Bishops who refused to publish the declaration, and to condemn those Dissenters who have made their addresses of thanks for it." This letter was printed in 1689.

MURRAY'S EGYPT.*

MR. MURRAY would seem to have at length realized the fact that his Handbooks have to compete with the rival publications of Baedeker, and that new editions are in some cases necessary unless he is to be thrust out of the market altogether. Were it not that there is as yet no English edition of Baedeker's Guide to Upper Egypt, we cannot conceive even the most patriotic Briton buying the unwieldy volume of antiquated theory and worthless information which has hitherto received the sanction of Mr. Murray's name, and we are glad to be able to draw attention to the very great improvements which have been effected in the present edition. A large part of the work has been entirely rewritten, many excellent maps and diagrams have been added, and not the least important alteration is the division of the work into two volumes, so that the tourist may now carry his Guide about with him, without having a huge pocket specially constructed to hold it.

It seems almost a truism to say that the merits of a guide-book must be considered with reference to the needs of ordinary travellers rather than of advanced students; but in writing a Guide to Egypt there is a strong temptation to overlook this fact. As the science of Egyptology is now only in its infancy, and the data before us are most incomplete, there exist very many possible theories on the art, history, and religion of ancient Egypt. Each new discovery of importance gives rise to new theories, and the few men who are qualified to speak with authority on the subject, even to the extent demanded by the superficial requirements of a guide-book, are for the most part pledged to one or another of these theories, if they are not absolutely the originators of them. There is every temptation to such men to use their opportunity as a means of spreading their own opinions, instead of giving the simple guidance necessary to a traveller of average ignorance. This danger the compilers of Murray have almost entirely escaped. The work is essentially popular in its character, and no special knowledge is necessary for the understanding of any part of it. We lay stress on this point because the same cannot be said of Baedeker. His descriptions of temples and courtyards are often rendered bewildering to readers who have little or no architectural knowledge, by the profusion of technical terms. Another point which renders Murray preferable for English travellers is the spelling of Egyptian names, both ancient and modern. The question of transliteration is of course a difficult one, and, from the point of view of scholars, it cannot at present be definitively settled. But in a guide-book the method suggested by common sense is to spell the names just as an educated member of the nation for whose use the book is intended would naturally spell them if he heard them pronounced by a native. For the first time, this method has been consistently followed in the present edition, and its adoption is all the more pleasing from the elaborate apparatus of mysterious symbols and the piling up of superfluous aspirates to be found in Baedeker. It will be agreed that "bakhshish" is a needlessly intricate way of spelling the word most commonly heard by travellers in Egypt; and English readers, at least, would not suspect that it

was the equivalent of *co*, or that a word written Zakâzîk was pronounced Zagazig. Again, Salâheddin may or may not be the scientifically correct method of spelling the name of Richard Cœur de Lion's celebrated adversary, but surely he would be more generally recognized as Saladin. The editor feels it necessary to make in the preface some apology for taking this liberty with modern Arabic words, but a large majority of his readers will be very grateful to him for having done so. Under this system the Arabic vocabulary has been made intelligible and useful. It is perhaps rather too copious, and contains words which the ordinary traveller will never require; but we cannot point out the omission of any useful words; and, unlike most Arabic and other vocabularies attached to guide-books, the words contained are such as are in common use, to the exclusion of those which belong purely to the classical or written language.

If we turn to the pages which describe the Museum at Boolak we shall find the same superiority over Baedeker. Those objects are selected for notice which, from their intrinsic beauty or from some special interest attaching to them, are likely to attract such visitors as have no intention of making a study of Egyptology. The very few to whom Baedeker's exhaustive list could be of any value would be sure to purchase the excellent Catalogue, which is the work of M. Mariette and Herr Brugsch, while ordinary travellers would toil in vain through ten pages of microscopic print without receiving very much assistance in their search after the beautiful or the curious. In connexion with Boolak Museum we are glad to note an absence of the rather extravagant praises lately bestowed upon the statues of Rahotep and Nefert; while the wooden statue of a village sheik, which seems to us to be on the whole a better work of art, meets with due recognition. Passing from ancient Egyptian to Mohammedan remains, a word of praise must be given to the excellent account of the various mosques of Cairo, and the accurate plans of the more important among them. Here, as in the chapter on ancient art, the writer has not been content to give a description of each object of interest as it stands, but has added a brief sketch of the progress of Mohammedan architecture from the seventh century, when it was little more than a reproduction of Greek and Roman forms, as in the Mosque of Amer, to the fifteenth, when the style reached its most characteristic and graceful development in the mosque-tomb of Kaitbey.

The interesting Coptic churches are well described, and a special feature of the book is the notice given to the convents of St. Paul and St. Antony in the desert to the east of the Nile, and to those near the Natron lakes to the west. These convents are seldom visited, though they contain much that is of great interest to students of Christian antiquities, and, considering the large proportion of clergymen among the English travellers in Egypt, it is strange that they have not attracted more attention. However, it is the habit of tourists in every country to pay attention to what is generally considered most remarkable, regardless of their own ordinary tastes and studies, for the reason which induced Sheridan's son to go down a coal mine—not because he took any interest in mining, but to say that he had been; and no doubt the knowledge that a man has actually sat on the top of the Great Pyramid imparts an Oriental flavour to the details which he gathers from his guide-book for the benefit of his friends at home. A good history of the convents would no doubt make them fashionable among tourists, and would also be of great interest not merely to ecclesiastical students, but to general readers, for the monks must have experienced strange vicissitudes in the course of their history, and suffered much at the hands of their Mohammedan neighbours. Indeed the extreme precautions observed in admitting strangers seem to show that they do not feel themselves entirely safe, even at the present day.

It is comforting to find that the account of the quarries of Toora and Masarah has been rewritten. The description of the ancient method of quarrying given in previous editions was totally unintelligible; we have never met a single visitor to Egypt who was not puzzled rather than enlightened by it. The present account is simple enough, and the absence of any memorials of the early empire in these quarries is plausibly explained by the suggestion that the operations of this early period have been obliterated by subsequent excavations under the later dynasties. There is, however, no mention made of the probable reasons for the great length of the caverns cut into the hills, which seems to be that the rock near the surface is generally much softer than that found further in, and that the workmen tunnelled on until they reached stone hard enough for their purposes.

The descriptions quoted from various authors which are introduced here and there throughout the book are for the most part judiciously selected, and there is an almost entire absence of original fine writing. One advantage of this self-restraint is the avoidance of such ludicrous mistakes as one which occurs in Baedeker's description of sunset as seen from the heights above Cairo. Here we are told that "on the borders of the immeasurable desert tower the huge and wondrous old pyramids, gilded and reddened by the setting sun." As a matter of fact, the position of the pyramids is almost exactly between the spectator and the setting sun, and so far from being gilded and reddened, they stand out nearly black against a glowing background. On the whole there are singularly few mistakes to be found in the present work. We are inclined in one or two instances to dispute the advice given to tourists as to the choice of hotels. Many experienced travellers will, for example, prefer the Hotel Abbat at Alexandria to the one which is here recommended.

* A Handbook for Travellers in Lower and Upper Egypt. Sixth Edition. London: John Murray.

Nothing but unreasoning enthusiasm for all things Eastern could have led to the statement that the flesh of Egyptian sheep is good. Of course excellence in such matters is relative, and we fully admit that, as compared with Egyptian beef, Egyptian mutton is very desirable food; but, as compared with the flesh of any other animal that we remember to have ever eaten, it is tough and tasteless beyond expression, and requires all the resources of a good cook to make it either palatable or digestible. In the list of the various restaurants and provision shops of Cairo, the writer has forgotten to mention, what many thirsty Britons will be glad to know, that a glass of English draught beer is to be had at Ablett's in the Mooskee.

The photographs of Béchard (not Béchard) are strangely enough passed over without any share of the praise which is bestowed upon others of certainly no greater merit. It is true that some of his negatives are far too much manipulated; but, after making all due allowance for this defect, or rather excess, his views of the streets and neighbourhood of Cairo are, in our opinion, decidedly the best to be had. The only reference made to the beautiful red and black pottery of Assiout is a casual remark that the best pipe-bowls in Egypt are made there, and yet this manufacture is one of the very few industries in Egypt which has any artistic merit still remaining. All travellers who go up the Nile should purchase specimens on the spot, as the somewhat similar ware to be bought in Cairo is utterly inferior in form, colour, design, and workmanship, as well as in the fineness of the paste. Perhaps the most astonishing statement in the whole book is that nailed boots are useful in the ascent of the pyramids. We shall next be told that skates are useful to prevent inexperienced persons from slipping on ice. In connexion with this part of the subject, the "panorama of the pyramids" must be excepted from the praise already given to the maps and diagrams generally. The angle at the apex of the pyramid is, in almost every case, much too acute; a somewhat false idea is conveyed of the curiously shaped pyramid at Dashoor; and the step pyramid of Sakkarah looks as if it were built of children's bricks. Such diagrams are quite useless unless they are perfectly accurate. No one needs a picture to give him a vague general idea of the shape of a pyramid. One more defect—not a very important one, perhaps—remains to be noticed. When a break is caused in a page by a diagram or a table of statistics, the subject-matter of the first column is carried on, after the break, sometimes to the foot of the page, sometimes to the top of the second column; and in one instance an amusing change of meaning is caused by reading on in the wrong direction.

We have confined our remarks mainly to the volume relating to Lower Egypt, partly because the second volume—consisting for the most part of a straightforward description of the successive objects of interest on the banks of the Nile—calls for no detailed criticism, and partly because, in the absence of any other English guide to Upper Egypt, those travellers who are unable to read German must use Murray, good or bad. However, after a careful examination of Part. II., we can confidently say that an English version of Baedeker's "Upper Egypt" does not seem likely to be so profitable an undertaking as it did a year ago.

CARTER ON EYESIGHT, GOOD AND BAD.*

THE author's long professional experience gives exceptional weight and importance to the scientific opinions put forward in this short treatise upon Eyesight, Good and Bad. Plain and simple rules for the exercise and preservation of vision need to be at least as much based upon wide and persistent observation as upon independent study of the physiology of the visual organs, or of the properties and influence of light in relation to the eye. As Ophthalmic Surgeon to St. George's Hospital, Mr. Brudenell Carter had for many years ample means of observing and classifying the various forms of disease to which the most delicate organ of the animal frame is liable, and he was thus enabled to fortify by copious notes of observation the lessons delivered by him as Hunterian Professor of Pathology and Surgery to the Royal College of Surgeons of England. The stores of knowledge and the therapeutical experience thus acquired will, we are glad to think, obtain a still wider field of usefulness by being embodied, as far as is possible, in the little manual now before us. Much of the time of every ophthalmic practitioner, as of every consulting physician, is taken up day by day, as our author's experience forcibly impressed upon him, in repeating to successive patients precepts and injunctions which ought to be universally known and understood. To make generally available these simple and ever applicable maxims, together with the scientific grounds upon which they rest, is the object he has proposed to himself in compiling the present work. He has no intention of entering more minutely into matters of anatomical detail than may be requisite to bring home to the ordinarily educated mind the reasons for the practical rules which he is desirous of enforcing. To the same extent he would take his readers over the elementary ground of optics, touching briefly on the simple properties of light and the formation of images by lenses, in order to illustrate the mode in which objects are figured upon the retina by rays passing through the crystalline lens of the eye. The use of the ophthalmoscope in investigating the functions of the

organs of sight and detecting their hidden maladies is here pointed out, as well as that of the contrivance of Dr. Snellen of Utrecht for testing the acuteness of vision by test-types seen under various angles or at various degrees of distance. The curious lacuna in the field of vision, known as the blind spot, first discovered by Mariotte in the reign of Charles II., is explained. The author then passes on to one of the most prominent topics of his work—near and distinct vision, and presbyopia, or aged sight.

Comparable as it is in many respects with a transparent circular lens or disk of glass or other material, the crystalline lens of the eye is not a rigid or passive organ. If such were its nature, its influence in refracting the rays of light which enter by the pupil would be always the same. But it has been found by the labours of Donders, Cramer, and others, to have a certain power of adjustment, known by the name of "accommodation." A small muscle called the ciliary muscle, or muscle of accommodation, has been shown to produce an increase or diminution in the convexity, and also in the power, of the crystalline lens. In fig. 30 our author makes clear in a diagrammatical form the exact nature of this change, whereby the anterior surface of the lens becomes more convex and the pupillary opening smaller; one half of the figure showing the parts at rest, and the other half showing them as they are when accommodation is being exerted, the relative position or configuration of the ciliary muscle being indicated in each case. This change becomes tantamount to inserting an additional convex lens within the eye, and the amount of additional refracting power which can thus be added is capable of definite measurement. For every eye there is a point within which clear vision is no longer possible without optical assistance; and this, which is called the near-point, marks, Mr. Carter explains, the limit of the power of accommodation. Three classes of normal vision are to be distinguished—(1) when the eye can unite parallel rays upon its retina, its axial and focal length being the same; (2) when the length of the axis is less than the focal length, the eyeball being flat, in which case the focus of parallel rays would always fall behind the retina could they pass through its tunics—this is called the hypermetropic state; (3) when the axial is greater than the focal length, the eyeball being comparatively convex and the pencil of parallel rays falling in front of the retina—this is the myopic state. In neither of the two latter states—called by the common name of ametropia—can there be by nature strictly defined images of distant objects upon the retina, which receives instead but a more or less diffused patch of light, technically called a diffusion circle. For the hypermetropic eye a convex lens is required in order to place the focus of parallel rays upon the retina, and for the myopic eye a concave lens, the degree of ametropia being definable in terms of the power of the correcting lens in the dioptric scale of measurement which Professor Donders has enabled us to substitute for the empirical and inexact method of graduation previously in use amongst opticians and surgeons. A hypermetropia of two dioptres describes excessive length of sight, which requires a convex lens of two dioptres for its complete correction; and a myopia of two dioptres is one which requires a concave lens of two dioptres. In many persons the two eyes are of unequal refractive power, calling for a combination of artificial lenses or spectacles adjusted to suit the inequality.

By the power of adjustment or accommodation before spoken of, the focal length of the eyesight is unconsciously yet rapidly enabled to bear upon and to define objects near and distant. The amount of this power of accommodation can also be expressed by the dioptric scale. Thus, in the case of an emmetropic eye, which can see clearly objects indefinitely distant and can also see small objects clearly at twenty centimetres, but not at any shorter distance, the effort of accommodation which is exercised in seeing at this near point is optically tantamount to placing within the eye an additional convex lens of the same focal length as the distance of the eye to the near-point—in this case a lens of five dioptres. Were the near-point at twenty inches or half a metre, then the accommodation would be equal to a lens of two dioptres. As life advances, the crystalline lens gradually loses its elasticity and becomes more and more rigid, the power of accommodation consequently diminishing, and the near-point receding further and further from the eye, whatever its original power of refraction. This is the condition known as presbyopia or aged sight, which generally begins to be felt between the ages of forty and fifty;—

Taking the mean of many observations, we find that at ten years of age the accommodation is equal to a lens of 13 dioptres, and the near-point is at 3 English inches. At twenty-one, the accommodation has fallen to 9 dioptres; and the near-point has receded to 4.5 inches. At forty, the accommodation has fallen to 4.5 dioptres, and the near-point has receded to 9 inches. At fifty, a great change has taken place. The accommodation is then only three dioptres, and the near-point has receded to 13 inches; at sixty, the accommodation is only 1.5 dioptres, and the near-point is at 26 inches; while at seventy-five the accommodation is wholly lost, the eye is passive, and the near-point is therefore at infinite distance.

A well-conceived diagram is added to make clear at a glance the comparative effects of declining accommodation in relation to age and to original power of refraction. The same scale will be found of use in determining the degree of optical power required in each individual case to supply the deficit of advancing age. Our author protests against the popular prejudice as to the hurtful effects of wearing glasses, a fallacy which leads to the exclusion from workshops of many a good workman who at the age of fifty or so shows signs of failing sight. That there is no harm in the habitual use of a convex lens is shown by the fact that watchmakers are by comparison, as a class, enviably free from eye diseases. His practice in an ophthalmic hospital has convinced Mr. Carter that

* *Eyesight, Good and Bad: a Treatise on the Exercise and Preservation of Vision.* By Robert Brudenell Carter, F.R.C.S., &c. With numerous illustrations. London: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

the habitual exercise of the eye upon fine work tends to the development and preservation of its powers. Nor is the reason far to seek, seeing how largely the strength of vision depends upon the accommodation lying in the ciliary muscle, which, like all muscles, is fortified by exertion and atrophied by disuse. Many a case of glaucoma easily curable by an early operation has been erroneously met by supplying stronger and stronger glasses, to which the resulting blindness has been most unfairly set down. Our author in his defence of glasses tends, it may be thought, towards the opposite extreme. He would seem to fit the whole human race sooner or later with spectacles. In people with "wonderful sight," who can read without spectacles at seventy or eighty years of age, he sees no wonder at all. By their loss of accommodation they are simply reduced to the state of short-sight of three dioptries, and enjoy the usual immunity of that state. He pictures vividly at the same time the delight of the myopic on finding their horizon of sight and power of defining objects suddenly enlarged by being fitted with concave lenses of the proper dioptric power. Chief among these joys is that of following the play of expression on the faces of persons with whom they converse. For want of this reciprocal power the speech of short-sighted persons often becomes indistinct; the unconscious action of the lips in response not following those of the other speaker. A lady who had for many years been engaged in teaching had her myopia corrected by proper glasses. Her first exclamation of pleasant surprise was an emphatic commentary upon the state in which her life had until then been passed. "Why, now I shall be able to see the faces of the children!" To the public speaker or preacher there can be no more serious drawback than being unable through shortness of sight to note the play of features and to rivet the gaze of his hearers.

In treating of the causes of myopia Mr. Carter takes note that, while this defect may be in many cases set down as hereditary, there is little definite evidence upon this point. Every one may have known cases of the most extreme differences of eyesight in children of the same parents. The most careful observations upon myopia in infants and young persons are those of Dr. Cohn of Breslau, who examined the eyes of 10,060 children, and found, out of this number, 1,004 who were myopic. The defect he further found to increase steadily as his observations rose from the elementary to the higher classes in the schools. Bad light was an unvarying concomitant in conditions of this kind, as was also the faulty construction of desks and seats, causing the children to stoop over their work so as to bring their eyes closer to it; both causes compelling an undue amount of convergence effort, fatiguing the sense, and accustoming the eye to a short focus. To the same result would contribute the odiously contracted type and coarse paper of German school-books in general. No wonder that the Germans are by far the most habitually be-spectacled race. Those who, on the contrary, live open-air lives, with their gaze most commonly fixed upon far-off objects—sailors, soldiers, field-labourers, and the like—are notable for their long and vigorous sight. Mr. Carter's precepts for the care of the eyes in childhood, as well as for their preservation in manhood and declining years, deserve to be read with all attention. His remarks upon natural and artificial illumination are of no less value, and may be the means of correcting many an injurious habit, and of bringing comfort and peace to many a mind tortured by dread of losing the most precious of nature's gifts. The cases of practical care which he is able to exhibit will give confidence to those who, with the terrors of blindness before them, have recourse to his teaching. The influence of healthful habits of life towards the preservation of the eyesight is insisted upon, and many simple rules are laid down for the treatment of accidental injuries to the eye, and the avoidance of unhealthy and injurious strain. Several useful contrivances for saving effort to the weak-sighted, such as Prescott and Thursfield's writing frames, and the American type-writer, are explained and illustrated; and the practical hints with which the work closes upon the choice of spectacles will be of great service to sufferers from every kind of defective vision.

The time has been when asthenopia, or weakness of sight, was commonly regarded as incurable. There are, unhappily, cases in which failure of reflective power in the retina, or deadness of the optic nerve from paralysis or other causes, may baffle the utmost skill and resource of the oculist. Into extreme cases of this kind Mr. Carter does not enter at any length, but his remarks are full of hope for a large class of patients in whom the cause of distress is traceable to muscular fatigue. Donders, when he first discovered the nature and frequent existence of hypermetropia, was disposed to trace nearly all examples of asthenopia to the strain which was thrown upon the muscle of accommodation by its endeavours to correct the flatness of the eyeball. But this conclusion was modified by the observation that some asthenopic patients were myopic, or even emmetropic. Von Graefe was inclined to refer these cases to fatigue of the internal straight muscles by the act of maintaining convergence for some definite distance, rather than to fatigue of the accommodation muscle. He proposed a division of asthenopia into accommodative and muscular, according as the effort which occasioned distress was that of accommodation or of convergence, the internal straight muscles being in the latter class of cases the subjects of a peculiar weakness which he called "insufficiency," and which he proposed to measure by means of divers tests. Later observations have not confirmed his hypothesis, nor established the value of his tests, but have tended to convince Mr. Carter

that asthenopia may in almost all cases be referred to a want of harmony between the accommodative effort and the convergence effort, the muscular fatigue being due, not to the absolute exertion of either function, but to endeavours to combine the two in proportions which disturb the material relations between them. Measured by the natural or emmetropic standard, the eyes will in hypermetropia be called upon to exert accommodation in excess of their convergence, in myopia to exert convergence in excess of their accommodation. To redress the balance and take off the injurious strain, our author prescribes a regulated course of reading by the aid of properly adjusted glasses. The expedient of resting the eyes, so commonly recommended, he considers to be, save in cases of inflammation, the surest way of increasing weakness, through disuse of the nervo-muscular apparatus. The instances of cure which he has to cite as the result of this judiciously graduated process of exercise may well revive the hopes of many a patient who has been a prey to the fear of blindness.

On colour vision and colour blindness our author has a short chapter full of matter, and upon the subject of squinting he is able to clear up briefly many popular errors. Astigmatism or distortion of the cornea—the vertical curvature being unequal to the horizontal—is no less clearly explained, together with its mode of correction by means of plano-cylindrical lenses. The detection and measurement of this defect are best attained by the use of the series of letters striped at different angles, designed by an American physician, Dr. Orestes Pray. That astigmatism when uncorrected produces distortion of the shapes of objects, and that the correctness of an artist's drawing can have been disturbed by such a cause, Mr. Carter holds to be utterly without foundation, referring, we presume, to the observations of Professor Liebreich not many years ago in reference to the later drawings of Turner. Before abandoning this ingenious explanation of unquestionable signs of decay in the powers of that great painter, we should prefer seeing the subject treated with greater fulness than Mr. Carter has found compatible with the scope of his valuable little work.

THE WATERING-PLACES OF GERMANY, AUSTRIA, AND SWITZERLAND.*

THE publication of volumes like this of Dr. Gutmann's is one proof among many of the revolution that modern progress has been gradually introducing in the treatment of disease. We cannot suppose that our fathers enjoyed any immunity from those insidious illnesses which sap the health and dash the spirits, although without showing the acute symptoms which have more immediate interest for the undertakers. But if those complaints existed, comparatively little was heard of them; and a man who found himself mysteriously but gravely affected calmly made up his mind for the worst. He might have recourse to dosing, drenching, and bleeding; and his doctor and apothecary were only too ready to accommodate him in the application of those decisive remedies. Possibly he recovered; more probably he died and made no sign. But nowadays, if he has leisure and credit with his bankers, he may have any number of new chances in his favour. No doubt the family medical man would gladly monopolize the care of his ailments; but fashion and the developments of science have put that altogether out of the question. Everybody knows that when a malady of difficult diagnosis is slow or chronic, there need be no final sentence of death till a change has been tried, with a visit to some waters. So the domestic physician makes the best of a disagreeable business, and with the pleasantest manner he can assume for the occasion, recommends the patient to pay a visit to the Continent. And for one of these wanderers in quest of health who carries in his system the germs of dangerous or deadly disease, there are at least a score who are either mere *malades imaginaires*, or, at worst, very slightly hit. There are the men who have more or less overtaken themselves with brain-work or business anxieties of one kind or another; there are the women who have been living too fast through the fashionable season of some great city; there are the girls who are the offspring of marriages between the two, and who show hereditary tendencies to hysteria or to occult disorders of the nerves. A highly artificial life takes heavy toll of its victims, and relief is to be sought in the kind of regimen which puts the pleasantest form of restraint on artificial habits. Here is a specific which the most complaisant of physicians may prescribe, in the summer or autumn visit to some favourite health resort. The mere change of air and scene raises the spirits to begin with. As languor vanishes or pain is soothed, the faint hopes with which the invalid came grow into exhilarating expectation. The visible relief is worth some sacrifice, and a certain amount of privation brings its speedy reward. The habits of the place, to which you must inevitably conform, are all in favour of the cure. It is no use to sit up of an evening, because you will find nothing to do and nobody to keep you company; and moreover the life in the open air makes you drowsy. As you go to bed long before your usual hour, naturally you awaken early; and when the sun is shining warmly into the room, there is nothing to be gained by lying simmering in the blankets. Besides, you are bound by the orders of a doctor in whom you begin to believe, to present yourself in

* *The Watering-Places of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.* By Edward Gutmann, M.D. London: Sampson Low & Co. New York: Appleton & Co. 1880.

the throng round the pump at a certain hour in the morning; and when all the world is astir, the attraction to follow is irresistible. Then a breath of the cool fresh air of the early morning is one of those innocent forms of intoxication in which the most *blasés* delight the most. It gives you moreover an agreeable appetite for breakfast, if you have not inflated yourself to excess with mineral water. The simple coffee and bread and butter have the flavour of the most exquisite delicacies, and digestion is already smoothly at work before the healthful repast is well finished. An early dinner follows in due course; and as you have called it dinner instead of lunch, you do not feel bound to gorge yourself in the evening. A light supper follows a moderately long excursion; while in place of sitting in confined rooms through the day, you have been sauntering through shady woods, fragrant with the scents of their flowers and foliage. No wonder that, notwithstanding some occasional imprudence when the *menu* of the dinner-table is more inviting than usual, you make marked and steady progress, and find health and spirits "on the mend." And this without taking the waters into account, though no doubt they often have many of the virtues with which their most enthusiastic advocates credit them. Then, finding yourself patched up and refreshed towards the end of the bath-cure, you begin to remember that the life is monotonous, and you grow ungratefully impatient of its salutary restraints. You leave the bath for a little tour, like a schoolboy broken loose for the holidays. You slip the bit out of your teeth, give the rein to your imprudences with reinvigorated zest, and the reaction from the regimen being proportionately violent, sooner or later you are worse than you ever were before. So the following season you are more than ready to return to the health resort that certainly did you infinite good. And thus there is not a bath of any consequence on the Continent that does not come to have its regular *clientèle*, who bequeath their belief in the virtues they have abused to the children who inherit their predispositions to evil. The Germans especially, year after year, make penance, or, at all events, restrictions, alternate with and atone for excesses. And not a few English and Americans are falling into this German fashion, and setting examples which many of their country people are beginning to follow.

It is for the benefit alike of those who are really afflicted with some malady and of others who may be all the better for a change though there is nothing serious the matter with them, that Dr. Guttmann has written this "popular medical guide." Of the volume itself there is not much to be said, since it does not profess to contain anything that is very new or original, except that it will be found a compact and useful little handbook. The author is no fanatic in his belief in particular springs, though he does go so far as to close one of his chapters with the assurance that if you do not become impatient, but "remain, drink and bathe, you will succeed." What he impresses in the first place upon his readers—and the warning is specially needed by Americans, who are too apt to go about their cures, as about their travels, in red hot haste—is the necessity of taking the waters deliberately. Invalids are inclined to lose hope at once if they do not show immediate signs of amendment; yet it is a commonplace maxim of the doctors at most of the spas that you are very likely to feel worse before you become better. Then imprudences, to which temptations abound, are apt to defeat the object of the visit. A patient, in his great haste to get well, swallows inordinate quantities of fluid, whereas the system can only assimilate moderate doses, though these may be gradually and judiciously increased. Exercise is an excellent thing, and is enjoined upon all who are capable of taking it. But exercise should never overtax the strength, and the pedestrian's feelings of fatigue are warnings that should always be attended to. He will do wisely, at first at least, if he limits himself to long saunterings in the alleys and woods that almost invariably surround the Kursaals. These pleasant strolls may be prolonged indefinitely; and there are seats in abundance where you may repose and recruit the forces. But the impetuous invalid, exhilarated by the air and possibly by the water, fancies he can hardly have too much of a good thing, and recklessly abuses the strength he is recovering. Consequently the waters fail of their effect on a frame that is always being artificially enfeebled. Indiscretions in diet are of course another snare. Patients, if they only knew it, as Dr. Guttmann takes care to point out for their comfort, are far more generously treated than they used to be, according to the generally received modern regimen of the bath faculty. Old notions have been exploded as to many simple luxuries of the table which were supposed to clash with the chemical action of the water; and things that once were rigidly proscribed are now permitted to be used in moderation. But moderation must still be the great rule of bath-life; and moderation is a relative and elastic term, which invalids are too much inclined to interpret to their injury. The fresh air and the exercise make them hungry, and they indulge their improved appetites to excess, and are even guilty of the insanity of indigestible suppers. Dr. Guttmann, in laying down general rules, would diet them somewhat too meagrely, as it seems to us. A light breakfast, a light dinner, and a scanty supper may be all very well in certain cases; dyspeptics and those who are suffering from indigestion may be easily persuaded to put the muzzle on for their own sakes, since retribution is sure to follow swiftly on imprudences. But bath-life would become intolerable on such a régime to others who have the free use of their legs and whose stomachs are in fair working condition. Then appetite must be, in a measure, a question of atmosphere. Thus a man who gasps

and perspires through a hot summer in the depths of the confined valley of Ems—which Dr. Guttmann, by the way, with most extravagant laudation, pronounces the gem of the German spas—will rather have to fillip his appetite than to curb it. On the other hand, if he is drinking the iron waters of Schwalbach and walking about its airy and lofty table-lands—still more, if he is inhaling the iced breezes of the Upper Engadine—he will find himself ravening for his food like a wolf, and rising from heavy repasts with cravings unsatisfied. Dr. Guttmann objects most decidedly to the *table d'hôte*. The variety of dishes, he says, induces invalids to overload themselves with very indigestible food. People accustomed to plain living at home, "delighted by the novelty of sitting at a large opulent table, in the company of fashionable society, are too much inclined to yield to the temptation and indulge too freely in the consumption of ragoûts, heavy puddings, and all kinds of compound dishes." As to the "opulence" of the modern *table d'hôte*, Dr. Guttmann is at issue with his countryman Mark Twain, whose *Tramp Abroad* we recently noticed. Mr. Twain asserts that at the *table d'hôte* nowadays you may starve in the midst of apparent plenty; and on the whole we are inclined to agree with him. The *table d'hôte* has changed greatly for the worse in the lifetime of the present generation. But, as a matter of fact, there are *tables d'hôte* and *tables d'hôte*; and while those at certain of the baths are simple to parsimony, and are served seemingly after *menus* drawn out by the doctors, at others, like those of Wildbad, for example, the *cartes* are as liberal as the cookery is unexceptionable, and the patient may undoubtedly be led into temptation. By the way, Dr. Guttmann rather oddly recommends those who dine at the *tables d'hôte* for the sake of the society they meet there, to seek fashionable company at the restaurants instead, where, at the same time, they can set a limit to their dishes. But while a man may make acquaintance with his neighbours at a public dinner-table, and possibly follow it up if the beginnings are mutually satisfactory, it would be a strong measure for even the most enterprising citizen of the States to cross to an isolated table in a restaurant, and, having singled out some particular group that took his fancy, insist on carrying their intimacy by storm.

Dr. Guttmann seems to write of most of the baths either from personal knowledge or good information. With some of them, such as Carlsbad, he is evidently much better acquainted than with others; and on these he expatiates at greater length. His practical information as to the qualities and composition of the springs, the complaints for which they are suitable, the natural attractions of the neighbourhoods, the proper seasons, the routes, the hotels, &c., will be found generally trustworthy and very useful. In his recommendations of the hotels, however, he makes some unaccountable omissions. Thus at Schwalbach he says nothing of the Allée Saal, certainly by far the first in point of situation, and as certainly behind none of the others in comforts. At Wildbad we hear nothing of the Hotel Klump, one of the best houses in Europe; while the very bulk of the huge Vierjahrzeiten at Wiesbaden might have assured it, we should have fancied, against being overlooked; and, unless the management has greatly changed very lately, it certainly deserves honourable mention.

POETS IN THE PULPIT.*

AT a series of entertainments called "Sundays for the People," Mr. Haweis has been giving recitations from English poetry interspersed with moral remarks. The moral remarks and the selected passages are now printed together, under the title of *Poets in the Pulpit*. To compel poets dead and gone to come into the pulpit seems rather a violence to good taste, but the name of Mr. Haweis's little compilation is perhaps the worst thing about it. A certain school of critics is shocked when any one proposes to disengage the edifying quality of poetry, but we need not be so fastidious. Poetry, of course, is an art, like another. To point out the morality in poetry is like dilating on the medical qualities of a flower before we have admired its colour and perfume. But the people, especially on Sunday evenings, love to have it so. A practical race does not care to linger over the music and the colour, so to speak, of the poet's work, but prefers to ask, "What good will these lines do our immortal souls?" Thus the Lotus Eaters may be made to point the moral of industry, punctuality, and despatch in business, while the "Sleeping Beauty" can be twisted into an allegory in favour of early rising. Mr. Haweis is scarcely to be blamed for humouring the popular taste. An art which deals so intimately with man in all his relations as poetry does, cannot but be deeply charged with moral ideas. The more universal the poet, the more must thoughts about man's duty and destiny occupy his muse. And though the expression of these thoughts is not, in logical language, the *differentia*, the peculiar mark of poetry, it is the side of poetry in which a popular audience is most interested. It is also the side of poetry which may least incongruously be discussed from the pulpit. We cannot, therefore, ask Mr. Haweis for complete criticism, but merely for moral exposition.

Mr. Haweis is of opinion that all our poets "condense the life of your age into words that breathe and thoughts that burn" (*sic*), and he mentions Mr. Swinburne and Keble among other examples of this condensing power. But he did not, we regret to say, devote

* *Poets in the Pulpit*. By H. R. Haweis. London: Sampson Low & Co. 1880.

a sermon to "Dolores," and treat the people to "a nicht wi' Swinburne." Mr. Haweis is so plucky and ingenious an expositor that we feel sure he could have extracted education from "Félice," or derived a theory of the Christian life from Mr. Dobson's *Vignettes in Rhyme*. But, though bold, he is discreet, and his lectures begin with milk for literary babes, with notes on Mr. Longfellow. From a brief biographical paragraph we learn that Mr. Longfellow was "run" for the Lord Rectorship of Glasgow University in 1874, but was defeated by "Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield." It scarcely seems six years since Mr. Disraeli became Lord Beaconsfield. The political contest between the statesman and the American poet is one of the funniest even in the grotesque annals of Glasgow University. The words with which Mr. Haweis ends his critique of Mr. Longfellow seem to us very much to the point:—

Take home to your hearts the warmth of his sweet natural religion; take home the peaceful and quiet contemplation of death and the grave, and the bright glimpses of the shining fields beyond; take home his manly courage, his earnest endeavour after all that is noble, and sweet, and upward; take home his unstained aspirations, his sense and belief in the triumph of good. He sends you forth into the New Year, but he bids you tread its threshold with a firm and light step; before you lies an unknown, untravelled world.

In these words Mr. Longfellow's moral qualities—and they are his chief qualities—are very well summed up. Mr. Haweis wisely abstained from reciting "Excelsior," fearing, perhaps, that the people would join in, as in a popular chorus. But it is odd to find Mr. Haweis saying that "perhaps in the 'Psalm of Life' Longfellow is sweetest and most powerful." The "Psalm of Life," if there be any meaning in the English language, is gibberish. Let us analyse two of the verses:—

Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime,
And departing, leave behind us
Footprints on the sand of time:

Footprints that perhaps another,
Sailing o'er life's solemn main,
A forlorn and shipwrecked brother,
Seeing, shall take heart again.

Even if one can conceive of life as a "solemn main," bordered by "sands of time," how can the mariners on the main leave their footprints on the sands? And what possible comfort can footprints on the sands be to a shipwrecked brother who, despite his shipwreck, still keeps persistently sailing o'er life's solemn main? The brother must have had very sharp eyes if he could see footprints on the sands from his raft, for his ship is supposed to have been wrecked long ago. Perhaps Mr. Longfellow was thinking of the footstep which Robinson Crusoe found on the sand of his desert island. But Robinson was not sailing when he detected that isolated phenomenon; nor, when he saw it, did he "take heart again." The fact is that even Robert Montgomery never wrote greater nonsense than the "Psalm of Life." The poem is popular because the public vaguely feel that the author means to be very improving. Like the "Northern Farmer," they "think he says what he ought to ha' said," and they go away. Mr. Haweis even sends them away with that amazing remark about Longfellow being "sweetest and most powerful in the 'Psalm of Life,' as, indeed, he is there most admirably concise." Concise! A poet tells us "in the bivouac of life" not to be like "dumb, driven cattle," but to be "a hero." What an alternative, either to be cattle in the plural or a singular hero! And what business have cattle in a bivouac?

When Mr. Haweis comes to Mr. Tennyson, he selects as the Laureate's characteristics his depth and sobriety of thought, his wide sympathies, and his moral and religious instincts. Mere critics of poetry, as poetry, would select other qualities; but Mr. Haweis has to adapt Tennyson to pulpit purposes. Much that he says is true, though this does sound a little odd, "How sound and sweet are his words on the great question of the redistribution of property!" If that great question were ever mooted in practice, the Laureate's language, we fear, would be rather strong and direct than sound and sweet. But we hurry on to what is the real point in Mr. Tennyson, as in Mr. Browning, Mr. Longfellow, and the rest. They are all optimists. All of them hold, in the geographical language of one of Dickens's characters, that "things will come round and be all square." "Our poet," says Mr. Haweis, "like all good men and good women, is at the bottom an optimist." A pessimist poet, like Leopardi, would be worse than useless in the pulpit. Nothing could be done with a writer who said, like the speaker in Clough's "Easter Hymn":—

Of all the creatures under Heaven's high cope,
We are most hopeless who had once most hope,
And most beliefless who had most believed.

Such a poet, at most, could only serve as an "awful example." And if we look at modern poetry, at the poetry of men who have lived since the "immense hope that traversed the earth" became more dim, we do find them optimists. They more or less "faintly trust the larger hope." They hold that

all, as in some piece of art,
Is work co-operant to an end.

As Mr. Haweis says of Mr. Browning, "He is passionately wedded to this world; everything about it is full of teeming interest for him; and yet the motto he has selected for death rules life—it is the eternal 'Prospect' or 'Beyond.'" Thus there is scarcely a pessimist poem of any mark, if we except *Atalanta in Calydon*, in an age when pessimism has some philosophic popularity and vogue.

This is only one of many proofs that pessimism is practically impossible, that it will not work, that no fruit grows in its soil or under its air. Mr. Matthew Arnold, whom Mr. Haweis seems to find ill-adapted for pulpit purposes, has but little of Pangloss in his characters. Yet even his Empedocles is not really pessimistic:—

I say, Fear not! Life still
Leaves human effort scope.
But, since life teems with ill,
Nurse no extravagant hope.

Because thou must not dream, thou need'st not then despair.

Sénancour was certainly something of a pessimist, and the verses which Mr. Arnold has written on his *Obermann* are not precisely cheerful. Yet even the poet's vision, "far in the Valais depth profound, beholds the morning break." What morning, what hope is there for him who follows on Obermann's track? There is no explicit answer; there only remains the vague universal protest against pessimism, against the bleak air in which art can never flourish, and in which life certainly ceases to be worth living. This poetical protest is so far witness to the truths that are their own evidence, and Mr. Haweis naturally makes the most of this poetical optimism.

There are passages in *Poets in the Pulpit* which seem lacking in good taste—there is, for example, an astonishing paragraph about Mr. Browning—and there are pieces of criticism which palpably miss the point. Mr. Haweis, for example, does not seem even to have noticed the spiritual conceit of "St. Simeon Stylites," in his long expository address on that poem. A critic who, like Mr. Haweis, can recall "but two instances in which the dread passage of the soul has been described in poetry"—namely, by Pope and by Mr. Browning—needs to be reminded of the *Dream of Gerontius*. As a matter of expression, we do not care to hear that Keats "owned quite a first-class poetic faculty, yet never lived to develop his gift." "The commonplace of Pope and the dulness of Addison" are regretted by Mr. Haweis, that fiery child of an age which lives "at high pressure." We do not find Pope commonplace, nor Addison dull, but they both lived in an age when there were no Sunday Evenings for the People, and could not escape the faults of their period.

Mr. Haweis's book is by no means admirable; we might even call it commonplace in parts, if that censure did not put Mr. Haweis in the same category as Pope; but the people might spend their Sunday evenings in many worse ways than in listening to Mr. Haweis's recitations. Almost all the poetry he read was good, and his moral reflections could injure nobody.

THE FOLK-LORE RECORD.*

THE second volume of the *Folk-Lore Record* is decidedly more interesting both for students and for readers generally than the first, which we noticed some months ago (September 20, 1879). The objection which we urged against needless repetitions in the accounts of popular traditions and superstitions in countries where many or most of them had been already recorded with a plethora of variations, does not apply to the careful examination of the folk-lore and popular notions of the people of Madagascar by Mr. Sibree. From a transcript made by Mr. Thomas Wright nearly half a century ago, Mr. Thoms gives a version of the story of Thomas of Erseltown (Ereildoune), which, he remarks, is clearly not a Scotch, but an English, ballad; and in the tale of Conn-eda, the eponymous hero of Connaught, we have a remarkable specimen of Irish popular tradition, received from Abraham Macfay, "possibly the last member of his profession known to have flourished in Ireland." This tale exhibits many features peculiar to Irish storytelling; but apart from the golden apples of Lough Erne, which reappear in the Gardens of the Hesperides, it has much in common with German and other popular tales. Conn-eda receives the clue for his search after the golden apples from the bird of knowledge; he rides a shaggy little pony which, like the steeds of Achilles, is endowed with the power of speech, and which, being slain at his own request, revives as a young prince, who removes all difficulties from the path of his friend. He appeases the serpents which guard the entrance to the lake by throwing a piece of meat down the throat of each, and from the pony's ear he draws the things which are indispensably needed for the accomplishment of his task. Mr. Napier supplies a very interesting paper on old ballad folk-lore, while from Mr. Coote we have a valuable chapter on the neo-Latin Fay. Mr. Coote seems to regard the name of the Latin Fatue as the origin of the name of our fairies and fays; but he carefully guards against the error which confounds the Fatue with the Latin Fata, although in Italy the former name was softened down into the latter, and reappears in the Arthur story in the beautiful Morgan le Fay, whose ring endows Olger the Dane with unfading youth.

From these papers, and more particularly from Mr. Lang's preface to the volume, it seems not unlikely that a controversy may be raised on the distinction between folk-lore and mythology, and even on the reality of this distinction; and clearly, if the question is to be discussed, it is in every way best that it should be examined and settled at once. If the distinction cannot be maintained, the method and the conclusions of comparative mythology must be sensibly, if not seriously, affected. That a large number

* The Folk-Lore Record. Vol. II. London: Printed for the Folk-Lore Society. 1879.

of popular stories, so closely resembling each other as to be practically the same, are now being brought together from all parts of the world, it is impossible to doubt. Is the likeness to be accounted for on the hypothesis of importation or borrowing, or by the idea of lateral transmission from a common source, or by spontaneous growth in various centres brought about from similar conditions of life and thought? In dealing with this question we must, in the first instance, satisfy ourselves that our materials are sufficient both in quantity and quality to justify us in forming an opinion, and that we have really submitted them to a scientific classification. Otherwise we cannot fail to run from one extreme to the other; and instead of saying, as some have been supposed to say, that everything in mythology is the sun, we may commit ourselves to the conclusion that all myths are the product of purely savage fancy, working in a world in which the speaker drew, and could draw, no distinction between subject and object. The signs of this danger seem to be betrayed in many parts of this volume. There is no question that, in these popular stories, the attributes of speech and intelligence are extended to plants, stones, trees, and, in short, to all visible and sensible things; and that, for the framers of these stories, all nature exists in their consciousness, and their consciousness in nature, "in a confused nebulous way." It is true also that Ovid, and indeed others also, "make Callisto a bear, and the bear a star, and another bear the ancestor of the Arcadians." But how are we to be sure that these myths belong to the same class with the beast stories of the Bechuanas or other savages? Are we not in danger of going too fast, if we allow with Mr. Lang that "the Greek mythology, from the maiming of Uranus (as savage as anything in New Zealand legend) to the tale of Cupid and Psyche (which is found among the Zulus) is a confused tissue of barbarous invention underlying the delicate embroidery of true Greek fancy"? This is, in fact, to include well-nigh all Greek myths within the domain of folk-lore; and the argument is baited with the apparently simple assertion that these horrors and absurdities, which the solar theory, we are told, was designed to explain, are survivals of a savage fancy, "which still exists, and where it exists, produces stories as like Greek myths as neolithic are like paleolithic instruments." We thus reach something like a formulated theory in the conclusion that the barbarous legends of primitive man "were polished into epic and national traditions," some of them surviving only as *märchen* in the mouths of old nurses, and retaining even now, while "they often resemble in plot and incident the greater myths of Greece," "a still closer likeness to the legends of the Zulus and Bechuanas." It follows that "the germ of Greek and other great mythologies is to be sought in the known qualities of the savage fancy and in the habits of the savage mind"; and this conclusion applies to the legends of *Œdipus*, and *Deianeira*, of *Tantalus* and *Pelops*, as well as to those of *Kronos* or the *Cyclops*. But when Mr. Lang insists that this must be the case, and rejects the notion that myths, as he puts the matter, are to be traced to "a fancied stage of society in which everybody spoke allegorically about the sun and the clouds, and then forgot the meaning of what he had said," it may fairly be urged in reply that he is arguing somewhat hastily. Comparative mythologists have never said, so far as we are aware, that the same men who spoke allegorically, if the word is to be used, about the objects of the outward world, forgot what they themselves had said. Lapse of time and change of abode have always been laid down as the conditions necessary for the advancement of myths to their secondary stage; and if it be allowed that the Aryans in the mythopœic ages spoke allegorically, then the popular stories of Zulus and Bechuanas are allegorical also. This Mr. Lang would probably refuse, and he would be right in refusing, to admit. The question is one which must soon be seriously dealt with; and Mr. Sayce, in his *Introduction to the Science of Language*, has offered an answer to most of Mr. Lang's arguments. A myth, in his judgment, is "the speculation of a child which the grown man has treated as though it were the utterance of his own mature thought." The names in myths properly so-called are capable of analysis, and the myths themselves have a religious element which is absent from folk-lore stories. In the latter there may be many popular etymologies, but they are "comparatively unfruitful, changing or modifying only an unessential portion of the story, and not its whole character." Mr. Sayce admits, however, that "it is often difficult to draw the line between folk-lore and mythology, to define exactly where the one ends and the other begins, and there are many instances in which the two terms overlap one another"; but he protests strongly against the misuse of terms which includes myths generally under the head of folk-lore.

We are thus left with the task of classification; and by no other method can the problems before us be solved. The mere fact that a myth or legend exhibits features which seem coarse, uncouth, incongruous, or even gross, is no reason for assigning the myth in question to the ranks of mere folk-tales. In some instances the seeming coarseness veils a picture of wonderful truth and beauty; as in the story of the sixteen thousand one hundred maidens whom the Hindu god Krishna rescues from the giant Naraka, and to all of whom he is wedded in one and the same moment according to the ritual in separate mansions. We may dwell if we will on the sensuous imagination of a people familiarized with polygamy; but the essence of the story lies in the fact that every one of these damsels thought that the god had wedded her in her single person. Without the idea of the simultaneous marriage the story has no meaning. We have further to note that the maidens are by no means the only beings rescued from the monster whose name points

to the blackness of darkness, and who is, in short, the Demon of Night, shrouding everything beneath his sombre veil. Like all these objects, the dew cannot become visible until the darkness has been conquered and dispelled; but when it has been driven away, the same sun is reflected in the thousands of sparkling drops. This story of Naraka is thus seen to be only another version of the Greek myth of Prokris, whose name marks her as the drowdrop, the child of Horse, the dew, and the unwilling rival of Eos, the morning. When, in Mr. Sayce's words, we know further

that Kephalos . . . is but an epithet of the sun, as is the "head" of the horse in the Veda, the signification of the whole story becomes clear. Prokris is slain unintentionally by Kephalos, while jealously watching him through fear of her rival Eos, just as the dew in the early morning is parched up by the first rays of the rising sun.

But even among the number of stories which may be allowed to belong to the province of folk-lore we shall find many which cannot be accounted for by an off-hand reference to the conditions of the savage mind generally. The Kafir legends of Uhlakayana have many points of likeness with those of our Jack the Giant-Killer, and the Greek tales of the Symplegades or of Charybdis and Skylla may be matched with stories belonging to Eskimos, Mongols, and Karens; and these resemblances, we may allow with Mr. Sayce, are sufficiently accounted for by the general condition of the minds of half-civilized men all over the world, and the circumstances amid which they live. But this theory will not explain the striking likeness and the not less striking points of dissimilarity between two such tales as the "Dog and the Sparrow" in Grimm's collection, and the old Deccan story of the "Parrot and the Nautch Girl." Any one who will take the trouble to compare these two stories will see that in their leading ideas they agree exactly, while the ways in which they are worked out are entirely different. The idea that the very singular framework of these tales could arise independently in different minds cannot be entertained for a moment. We cannot therefore believe that it was invented separately by Germans and by Hindus. We have, therefore, only the choice of two alternatives. Either the German borrowed the story from the Hindu, or the Hindu from the German; and then we have the difficulty that probably no borrowed story ever differed so widely from its original as the tale of Champa Ranee differs from that of the Dog and the Sparrow. Nor can we believe that the Hindu and the German should, each for himself, hit on the idea which makes a bird the avenger of wanton wrong and brings about the ruin of the wrongdoer through his own acts, while in each case the criminal swallows, or thinks that he has swallowed, his persecutor. If, then, the notion of borrowing must be given up, we must take to the alternative conclusion that the framework of the legend belongs to that distant time when the forefathers of the Hindu—the German and the Englishman—still shared a common home in Central Asia. But, ancient though it be, the tale is not, in strictness of speech, a myth. The names in it cannot be submitted to philological analysis; and the tales can at best be referred only to a class of stories which have their origin in proverbial sayings of a moral sort. Such specimens of distinctively Aryan folk-lore must be carefully distinguished from those popular stories which may be naturally suggested by the common sights or sounds of the outward world to the mind of any savage tribes. Nor must we be less careful in dealing with others in which elements belonging perhaps strictly to folk-tales are blended with others which are purely mythical. Some of the incidents related in the many versions of the Master Thief and the Shifty Lad may be simply the result of imagination working on in a channel opened out to it by a few mythical phrases; but the stories, in their leading idea, run up into the wonderful tale told of Hermes in the so-called Homeric hymn; and this tale resolves itself etymologically into a series of phrases describing the effects of air in motion. In these considerations we have a safeguard against the somewhat hasty generalizations of Mr. Lang; while we need scarcely say that they leave no room for the maintenance of an exclusive solar theory in mythology, in which, as Mr. Sayce very rightly asserts, we have a record of all the ideas of primitive man regarding the world around him.

REATA.*

WE are in some doubt whether we are right in speaking of the author of this story as Mr. E. D. Gerard, for we should not be in the least surprised to learn that it is the work of a woman. We are in no less doubt as to the nation to which he belongs. He is, we feel sure, either a foreigner who has passed most of his life in Scotland, or a Scotchman who has passed most of his life abroad. At first we were inclined to suspect that we had before us only a translation, but this suspicion we soon dismissed from our mind. Yet the language in very many places bears unmistakable traces of a foreign idiom. It clearly shows that he who uses it has been from childhood quite as familiar with some foreign tongue as with English. The dialect produced by this mongrel style is sometimes very dull. In one passage we read how a lover was attacked by a fever in the last weeks that he had to pass at the house of the lady to whom he was engaged. "This thought," we are told, "stung him like an irony of Fate." But there was

* *Reata: What's in a Name?* By E. D. Gerard. 3 vols. Edinburgh and London: Blackwood & Sons. 1880.

also another thought which "added fuel to his impatience. He had counted on the opportunities of this fortnight for putting the question of his interests in the most becoming light before his aunt's eyes." He got better, and had an interview with the young lady, at which he wanted to discover a secret which was carefully kept concealed from him. She was silent for a minute. "During that minute Otto was preparing to make the first step towards solid advantages." A few lines further down we find "his thoughts still running on the best way of broaching that tiresome subject." His servant just then rushes in "purple in the face, and gasping with excitement, giving out in broken accents something about horse-stealers. 'What's up next?' inquired Otto." The faithful servant, "not understanding even the drift of the excitement, but imagining that some sort of outrage was going to be done to Otto, stood by on one leg, breathing very hard, partly from having run so fast, and partly from agitation." Not many pages from this the heroine, in sending a copy of her father's will, writes to her correspondent, "I have had all the sums referred to named in Austrian coin. This will be more intelligible to you than the national coin, which figured in the original document." She adds, "I am placed out of the position of altering the conditions of the will." In one place a town is somewhat minutely described. After the author has mentioned the irregular rows of the trees he adds, "In all this there is nothing objectionable, and if it had not been for the bottomless state of roads and streets during half the year, &c." A long and somewhat curious account is given of a public ball in Austrian Poland. Towards the close of the evening we read that "the music came to an end, and was encouraged to resume." The dancing began afresh. One of the guests "greatly incommode everybody, himself and his partners foremost"; another "precipitated himself into the crowd," when, "fired on by the desire to distinguish himself, he had got hold of a lady, who presented the appearance of a formless mass of purple silk, and was courageously towing her round the room." Fresh life had been infused into the party:—

There was no denying it, the ball was very animated, and everybody was satisfied with the *cotillon*. Now the final galop was being wound up with crackers, and the dancers were putting out their last energies for the last effort. . . . There were crackers in all directions; each gentleman got a handful, and cracked them with the ladies he wished to dance with; and in the background, to swell the noise, explosive pellets were used abundantly.

Perhaps the best example of the absurdity of Mr. Gerard's style is to be found in the following description of a scene on the ice:—

For by this time Halka had let go Otto's hand, and was skating backwards facing him. This mode of skating is a difficult one for a lady to attain, perhaps not even desirable to be attained; it must necessarily call upon the strength very much, and any appearance of putting out strength detracts from the charm of a lady's skating. No doubt there are many women who skate well backwards; but amongst ten of them nine will offend your eye by the suggestion of vigour in their movements, and only the tenth will glide along with that effortless swiftness which resembles the graceful swaying of a bird poised in mid-air.

The effect that is produced by three long volumes of such writing as this can only be fully felt by those who take the trouble to read them from the beginning to the end. The absurdity cannot be brought home by mere quotations. Mixed up with this strange mongrel English we have such Scotticisms as the following:—"I wonder what we will be doing next June?" "I daresay we will be sitting on some haycock or other next June." "I daresay I won't find them too hard." "By the provisions therein contained I will have a yearly income of two thousand florins." "Perhaps I will break my neck." It is almost a relief when we come across such undoubted English—novelists' English, we mean—as "the items of a paraphernalia" of a coffee-house. In spite, however, of this droll style, *Reata* can be read with some degree of interest. It is, indeed, insufferably long, but the reader in going through it must follow the example of the skilful skater, and "glide along with that effortless swiftness" which the author celebrates. In other words, he must not be afraid to skim and skip. If he has not acquired this art, and acquired it in a high degree, we would strongly recommend him not to begin. There are, indeed, circumstances in which we could conceive that a man might read *Reata* from the first page to the last. On board a ship that was becalmed on the Equator, for instance, or when weather-bound in a mountain hotel for a week together, he might go through it word by word, not only with patience, but even with some degree of pleasure. But in all the ordinary states of life it can only be enjoyed by means of frequent and wide skipplings.

The plot may have been suggested by a story by Miss Drury which was published more than twenty years ago, and of which the title has escaped our memory. In that story the heroine, who when quite a girl had come into a great property, passed herself off as the humble companion of her elderly governess, whom she induced to play the part of the heiress. The hero, of course, was thoroughly disinterested, and in the end carried off both heroine and fortune, while there was a selfish lover who made love to the old lady, and found himself hopelessly fooled. The improbabilities of such a story are so great that not a little ingenuity is required on the part of the writer to overcome them. Mr. Gerard places the home of his heroine in a wild part of Mexico, while the hero lives in Austria. The scene changes backwards and forwards from one country to the other, till the time arrives for the heroine to come to Europe. Even then the secret is well kept; and it is not till the very end of the third volume that it is discovered by the people chiefly interested—the reader, unless he be very

dull, has long made out the mystery—who *Reata* really is. The opening of the story we found not a little perplexing. In fact, we so soon lost our patience in trying to follow our author in the involved account he gave of the different branches of the Bodenbach family, that had we been free agents we should have abandoned the attempt in disgust, and not read a line further of their history. The author himself must have felt that his account was by no means clear, for by the time that he reached the twenty-fourth page, he evidently thought it needful to remove our difficulties by giving us a family tree. Surely a writer makes a great mistake who begins a long tale by wearying his readers. He should wait till he has caught their attention, and then he may perhaps venture to introduce them to a piece of genealogy and a family-tree. After all there was really no great need for making a difficult case of it. There were Bodenbachs in Austria, and there were Bodenbachs in Mexico. Between the two branches of the family there had been no communication for thirty or forty years, when news reached the Austrian branch that the Mexican Bodenbach was dead, and that his daughter Olivia was heiress to his vast property. She, it was assumed, was an elderly maiden lady who had once been for a short time engaged to the head of the family in Austria. It was not for a moment suspected that this lady had been dead at least thirty years, and that the present Olivia Bodenbach was the only child of a second marriage. The Austrian Bodenbachs meanwhile had become poorer and poorer, and had little but their nobility left. They were overjoyed to find that their relative in Mexico was eager to make their acquaintance. The younger brother, Otto, goes over to Mexico, and during his whole visit does not for a moment doubt that the heroine, Olivia Bodenbach—*Reata*, as she is called—is Fräulein Lackenegg, while the real Fräulein Lackenegg he holds to be his Aunt Olivia. He falls in love with Olivia and is accepted; and then he first learns those conditions of old Bodenbach's will which the heroine, to use her own language, "is placed out of the position of altering." Otto and his brother are both to come into a considerable share of their uncle's property, on condition that they marry some one of noble birth. Should they marry beneath them, however, they are to forfeit most of what he leaves them. The scene in which Otto tries to find out whether *Reata* belongs to the nobility is amusing enough, but it is too long to quote in full. He invents a Baron Lackenegg, whom he had met, he said, last year at Baden. "Some relation of yours, I suppose?" he said. "How little I knew then—" "No; certainly no relation of mine," *Reata* interrupted, decidedly; "it couldn't be." On being pressed, she at last owned that her father had been a professor:—

"Where did he—did he—" began Otto, meaning to ask where the gentleman had hung out, but rather at a loss how to turn his phrase. "Where did he practise?" completed *Reata*, readily. "Oh, at Heidelberg."

"Oh yes, the university," Otto answered, with skilful suggestion. "Was it mathematics, or philosophy, or—"

"Oh no, not the university at all," *Reata* again interrupted him. "And not mathematics or astronomy, or anything of that sort, but simply—dancing."

"Dancing!" echoed Otto, in perfect incredulity.

"He was a dancing-master; do you understand?" she repeated, with almost a little testiness in her voice.

"A dancing-master! Your grandfather a dancing-master!" he exclaimed, turning pale.

Otto returns to Austria, and marries an heiress of noble birth. *Reata* follows him, and there becomes acquainted with his elder brother Arnold, who is the hero of the story. Arnold is as proud of his noble blood as his old uncle out in Mexico had ever been of his; but in the end love proves too strong for him, and he proposes to the humbly-born Fräulein Lackenegg. His character is cleverly drawn, and the scenes between him and her are often lively and interesting. The author certainly has a considerable sense of humour, and manages more than once to bring his characters into the most absurd complications. The descriptions of Austrian life are often curious; those that he gives of Mexico are, we should imagine, drawn from his imagination or his reading, and not from real life. Certainly he does not succeed in bringing country life in Mexico before us in the same way that he brings life in Austrian Poland. It is a great pity that, with so much in his book that is really good, he should have gone so far to spoil it by a spun-out narrative, and by the strange jargon in which he so often writes. He shows in many places that he has a natural gift of expression and a certain power of writing vigorously. There certainly ought to be some language in which he can write well. If he has a native tongue—a tongue, we mean, which he learnt in his nursery, and in which he has been brought up—he would do well in future to keep himself to it, and to employ the services of a skilled translator to turn his writings into English. Let him, however, beware of engaging either a Scotchman or an Irishman, so that he may be sure of having an opportunity of studying in one of his own works—at all events, in the translation of one of his own works—the correct use of *shall* and *will*.

MINOR NOTICES.

PROFESSOR MORLEY can have had no easy task in the arrangement of a book of considerably over four hundred pages consisting of prose selections from the works of important English

writers from 1356 down to the days of the present reign (1). No one, it need hardly be said, could well be better qualified to conduct such an undertaking than Professor Morley, who brings to its accomplishment wide knowledge and generally accurate perception. In the beginning of his first chapter Professor Morley has some good remarks to make on the definition of prose. He touches briefly on the origin of prose-writing, on the definition of the title from the Latin *prosus*, and goes on to quote Coleridge's remark that he wished our clever young poets would remember "his homely definition of prose and poetry—that is, prose is words in their best order; poetry, the best words in the best order." The definition, says Professor Morley, "may be homely; but it is not true. No writer of prose would wish to use second-best words. Setting aside the difference that lies deep in the nature of the thought, there remains only the mechanical distinction that verse is a contrivance for obtaining by fixed places of frequently recurring pause and elevation of the voice, by rhyme, and other devices, a large number of places of fixed emphasis, that cause stress to be laid on every important word, while they set thought to music." The remarks as to verse do not strike us as satisfactory, but what Professor Morley has to say of prose is valuable. He leads off after the preliminary observations, a few of which we have quoted, with some extracts from Mandeville, and in his second chapter he gives, amongst other excellent matter, the account left by John Rogers, the first of the martyrs under Mary, of his trial and condemnation. Coming down to the time of the later Stuarts, we find early in the sixth chapter a quotation from Dr. Wilkins, which at this moment has a special interest. Dr. Wilkins, who married Oliver Cromwell's sister Robina, and was made Master of Trinity by Richard Cromwell, "was one of the most ingenious men of his time. He was well skilled in mathematics, and had endeavoured to apply his knowledge to the well-being of society by stimulating men's minds with suggestions of possible mechanical inventions and of future conquests of nature." In one of these, as is seen from the quotation referred to, he anticipated M. Jules Verne and the ingenious person who has proposed to realize M. Verne's charmingly imagined submarine vessel, the *Nautilus*. "It will not be altogether impertinent," wrote Dr. Wilkins, "unto the discourse of these gradient Automata, to mention what Mersennus doth so largely and pleasantly descant upon, concerning the making of a ship, wherein men may safely swim under the water." He then went on to say that the feasibility of such a contrivance was beyond all question, as was shown by the experiments of Cornelius van Drebbel, "but how to improve it unto public use and advantage, so as to be serviceable for remote voyages, the carrying of any considerable number of men, with provisions and commodities, would be of such excellent use as may deserve some further enquiry." He then goes on to discuss at length and with much keenness "the many difficulties, with their remedies," and "the great conveniences" of the proposed vessel; and in the course of his remarks he quotes from Mersennus an account of a prototype of M. Fleuss; "one Barrieus, a diver, who hath lately found out another art, whereby a man might easily continue under water for six hours together." Professor Morley's extracts are, as we have said, exceedingly well selected, and the volume is capitally illustrated.

Mr. Hollingshead's smartly-written volume of articles dealing chiefly with theatrical matters (2) would be amusing, if only by dint of its somewhat cynical frankness, a specimen of which is exhibited in the first essay in the book, which he ends with a statement to the effect that the qualities which are needed for the good government of a theatre are "precisely those qualities that make a successful cheesemonger." It does not follow that, if this is true of one theatre, it is necessarily true of all. In his preface Mr. Hollingshead describes himself as "a licensed dealer in legs, short skirts, French adapters, Shakespeare, taste, and the musical glasses," and this description may perhaps be taken in connexion with the statement just quoted. Mr. Hollingshead goes on to say that he is no longer a professional writer toiling for his living, "but an amateur, writing when I think I have something to say," and it must be admitted that there are certain things in the volume which were well worth saying. The author's remarks on music and dancing licences and theatrical licences deserve, for instance, serious attention; while, as we have hinted, there is plenty of amusement of a certain kind to be got out of the rest of the book. The paper which gives its name to the volume is perhaps the cleverest of the series. It consists of some random contributions to a new philosophical dictionary, from which we select these definitions:—

LEGITIMATE DRAMA.—A drama whose authors are dead, and whose copyrights have expired.

HOUSE.—An Instrument of Torture invented by builders.

DRY WINE.—Physic in a convivial bottle.

NUISANCE.—Anything which I detest and you probably adore.

The words "new edition, revised and enlarged," on the title-page of the volume which Mr. Poole has edited (3) have a wider significance than has often belonged to them. Mr. Poole's object has been to popularize Lane's book, and to attain this a good deal of reconstruction, especially in the First Part, has been necessary.

(1) *Cassell's Library of English Literature.—Shorter Works in English Prose.* Selected, edited, and arranged by Henry Morley, Professor of English Literature at University College, London. With Illustrations. London, Paris, and New York: Cassell, Pether, & Galpin.

(2) *Plain English.* By John Hollingshead. London: Chatto & Windus.

(3) *Trübner's Oriental Series.—Selections from the Kur-An.* By Edward William Lane. New Edition, revised and enlarged, with an Introduction, by Stanley Lane Poole. London: Trübner & Co.

Mr. Lane's "Selections" were arranged to satisfy a natural wish on the part of ordinary readers to know something of the Koran, while suppressing any wearisome or offensive passage. But there were various points in the arrangement of the book which made it really fitter for the scholar than for the general reader, and it is by the removal of these that Mr. Poole seeks to fulfil the author's original intention. For Lane's Introduction, abridged from Sale's "Preliminary Discourse," Mr. Poole has substituted a well-written and interesting sketch of the beginnings of Islam.

Dr. Corfield's volume (4), which consists of a series of lectures delivered at the Rooms of the Society of Arts under the auspices of the Trades' Guild of Learning and the National Health Society, is one which should do excellent service. The writer's style is clear, his tone throughout just and moderate. If we were asked to single out from many good lectures one deserving special praise, we might perhaps call attention to that on "The Health of the Individual," which contains a very large quantity of useful information and instruction in a small space.

Mr. Palgrave's little volume (5) is very valuable as a book of reference, containing in small compass, and in a form easily taken in, much information of the highest interest to bankers, merchants, and financial and economical students. It is based on an earlier publication by the same author, and treats of the banks of France and Germany only so far as to show the variations in the value of money in those countries. But the accounts of the Bank of England since the Bank Charter Act was passed it analyses very fully, bringing out in a clear light the weaknesses of our existing banking system. The analysis of the balances kept by the London bankers with the Bank of England is especially interesting, and the dangers pointed out are real and obvious. The variations in the rate, too, are instructive and suggestive. But the book is for reference, not perusal. Going over much of the ground traversed by the late Mr. Bagehot in his *Lombard Street*, it serves to remind us of the loss suffered by monetary science in his death.

Mr. Rees's little biographies of Horace Vernet and Paul Delaroche (6) are well and interestingly written, and the illustrations which accompany them are a great improvement upon some which we have noticed in the same series. It was a good idea to include in the volume a series of brief biographies of the artists portrayed in Delaroche's well-known painting in the Hemicycle of the Palais des Beaux-Arts, of which a representation is given.

A third edition has been issued of Miss Kate Thompson's excellent *Handbook to the Public Picture Galleries of Europe* (7). For this carefully prepared small outlines of some two hundred typical works have been obtained and reproduced by the Typographic Etching Company. Also, for the first time, the Esterhazy Collection at Buda-Pesth is included in the volume, the value and usefulness of which are very great.

The admirably arranged General Index to the fifth series of *Notes and Queries* (8) bears curious testimony to the enormous amount and variety of information stored up in the pages of that quaint and most valuable paper. Lord Brougham was undoubtedly right in the remark quoted in Mr. Thoms's preface, that "the value and utility of the publication were increased tenfold by its capital indexes."

There is not very much to distinguish Mr. Browning's volume (9) from various others, the appearance of which is presumably due to the interest lately taken in South African affairs. His experiences, however—he began as an ostrich-farmer and ended as a soldier—are told in a simple and unaffected manner.

Dr. Hueffer has done well in collecting and republishing the series of articles and essays which make up the volume which he calls *Musical Studies* (10). In his preface the author makes some very pertinent remarks on the subject of such republications. To those who object to the perpetuation in book form of fugitive pieces it may be answered, he says, that "the present volume is part of an unmistakable movement in modern literature. The vast development of periodical publications within the last quarter of a century has drawn the best literary and scientific workers into its vortex. Few authors nowadays can withstand the temptation of the immediate and vast publicity conferred by the prestige of a first-class Review; fewer can materially afford to give years of, in most cases, ill-requited labour to the composition of a book." Books, properly so called, thinks Dr. Hueffer, are in consequence becoming rarer, and collections of essays are taking their place. However, as we have said, there is certainly no apology wanted for the collection and publication of these essays. They should be welcomed both by those who have and those who have

(4) *Health.* By W. H. Corfield, M.A., B.D., &c. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.

(5) *Bank Rate of England, France, and Germany, 1844-1878.* By R. H. Inglis Palgrave. London: E. P. Spon & Co.

(6) *Illustrated Biographies of the Great Artists.—Horace Vernet and Paul Delaroche.* By J. Knutz Rees. London: Sampson Low & Co.

(7) *A Handbook to the Public Picture Galleries of Europe; with a Brief Sketch of the History of the Various Schools of Painting from the Thirteenth Century to the Eighteenth inclusive.* By Kate Thompson. Third Edition. With Illustrations. London: Macmillan & Co.

(8) *Notes and Queries.* General Index to Series the Fifth (1877-1879). London: "Notes and Queries" Office.

(9) *Fighting and Farming in South Africa: a Narrative of Personal Experiences in the Colony during the Years 1877-79.* By Fred. G. Browning, late of the Frontier Light Horse and 3rd Cape Yeomanry. London: Remington & Co.

(10) *Musical Studies: a Series of Contributions.* By Francis Hueffer, Author of "Richard Wagner and the Music of the Future," &c. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black.

not previously made their acquaintance in another shape. It is to be regretted that the author did not amplify the two somewhat bald letters from Bayreuth which are included in the volume.

We note the fifty-third publication of the *Foreign Office List* (11) and the nineteenth of the *Colonial Office List* (12). In the latter of these we would draw special attention to the useful and interesting historical notices of the various colonies.

Mr. Masterman's object in compiling his *Handbook* (13) has been to bring the whole body of Statute-law relating to Parliamentary elections into an easily accessible form, a task of some labour, on which he has evidently spared no pains.

The third edition of Mr. Chandos Leigh's and Sir H. Le Marchant's work on Election Law (14), edited by Mr. Anderson and Mr. Leigh, includes a new chapter on municipal elections, and the addition to the appendix of the Acts of 1880, with a note of the changes made by them.

The title of *Highland Legends* (15) is given to a new edition of Sir Thomas Dick Lauder's interesting collection of stories which was first published under the cumbersome name of *Highland Legends and Long Rambles to Shorten the Way*.

The latest additions to the *Chandos Classics Series* are the three volumes known as Roscoe's Spanish, German, and Italian Novelists (16). The only objection we have to make to these is that the type is somewhat bewildering; but possibly this, having regard to the size of the volumes, may have been very difficult to avoid.

The late Mr. Chorley had resolved to publish in a revised form some lectures which he delivered, first at the Royal Institution, and afterwards at Manchester and Birmingham. These Mr. Hewlett, carrying out his friend's desire, has now published under the title *The National Music of the World* (17). The lectures or essays are full of their writer's keen critical power, and are justly described by Mr. Hewlett as "a contribution of real value to musical literature by one eminently qualified to discuss the interesting and curious points with which it deals."

For the sixth edition of *Heat as a Mode of Motion* (18) Professor Tyndall has written a short preface, from which it seems desirable to quote the concluding passage:—

On the continent, science leans on the strong arm of the State; in England its advancement must depend upon the sympathy of the public. Hence the supreme importance, in our case, of spreading abroad correct notions regarding its capacities, achievements, and aims. The practical triumphs of our day are obvious enough, and they are still frequently spoken of as if they constituted the entire claim of science to the world's attention. To some it seems a kind of handicraft, while others think it is, or ought to be, a mere congeries of facts. But they who regard it thus can know but little of the logic which runs through, and binds together, that "System of Nature" which it is at once the glory and the responsibility of science to investigate and unfold. Far be it from me to claim for science a position which would exclude other forms of culture. A distinguished friend of mine may count on an ally in the scientific ranks when he opposes, on behalf of literature, every attempt to render science the intellectual all in all. Ours would be a grey world if illumined solely by the dry light of the understanding. It needs equally the glow and guidance of high feeling and right thinking in other spheres. But this may be conceded while affirming the just and irrefragable claim of science to a more liberal space in public education than that which it is now permitted to occupy.

Mr. Howe's volume (19) contains some very spirited accounts of colonial adventures, and a capital boy's story called "Harry Delane."

Mr. Vizetelly (20) has added to his already well-known works concerning other wines a volume dealing with port and Madeira, wines which have been somewhat pushed aside by the popularity of all kinds of wines justly or unjustly called "light," but which may possibly have their day again. Mr. Vizetelly's volume is full of interest, and it is the more readable because he does not confine himself strictly to talk about its principal subject. He gives, to take one instance, a general and curious account of the inhabitants of the Alto-Douro district, where the were-wolf of superstition seems still, amongst others, to survive under the name of "lobis-homen." In this part of the world, a few years ago, according to the account of a friend of Mr. Vizetelly's, law and order were in a singularly primitive state, as is shown by a story, the end of which was that the proposed victim of a robber, who

was the terror of the neighbourhood, took matters into his own hand, and that no inquiry was made into the sudden death of the ruffian. The book contains a number of spirited illustrations, made chiefly from sketches by Mr. Ernest Vizetelly.

Messrs. Ward and Lock have issued a useful little volume, containing the complete returns of the general election, with biographical notices of the members of the House of Commons (21). Perhaps the sketch of "Six Years of Conservative Government," which precedes this, might as well have been omitted.

The eighth part of Mr. Dalziel's *British Dogs* (22) is especially interesting in containing a warm and well-supported protest against certain common errors concerning the character of the bulldog, a creature which has been apparently maligned with great injustice. Many people will perhaps be "surprised to hear" that the bulldog, if properly treated, is at once one of the most courageous and one of the gentlest and best tempered animals. The author gives an account of one which succeeded a fine Mount St. Bernard in his own house, and proved itself "in every way fully, if not more than, equal to any of its predecessors in endurance, fidelity, and sagacity. . . . It has remained always loose in the house, and has, with others of the same breed, daily sustained trials which none but a bulldog could endure without 'showing his teeth.'" So true is it that, as the author says, "manners makyth the dog." It must not be forgotten, however, that the common superstition about bulldogs has its practical effect; and it is to be hoped therefore that no one will assume, because Mr. Dalziel has found the true nature of the bulldog to be the reverse of stupid or ferocious, that any strange bulldog can be patted or chafed with impunity.

Part VI. of the *Practical Fisherman* (23) contains a good deal of interesting information about the salmon, with practical hints as to flies, and so on.

(21) *The New Parliament-Guide to the House of Commons*. London: Ward, Lock, & Co.

(22) *British Dogs; their Variety, History, and Characteristics*. By Hugh Dalziel ("Corsinco"). Part VIII. London: "Bazaar" Office.

(23) *The Practical Fisherman; dealing with the Natural History, the Legendary Lore, and the Capture of British Freshwater Fish*. Illustrated. London: "Bazaar" Office.

NOTICE.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return rejected Communications; and to this rule we can make no exception.

THE UNITED STATES.

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Mr. Gladstone's Apology to Austria.
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Mr. Bright and Foreign Opinion. Alsace-Lorraine. Russia and China.
Prince Bismarck. The Devonshire Club Dinner.
Sunday Labour in France.
Social and Literary Dandyism.
Thorns in the Cushion. The Musical Man. The French Stage.
Our London Correspondent. Wreck Report of the Board of Trade.
Country Houses and Fresh Air. The Amsterdam Loan Exhibition.
The Trade of April.
Histories of the Huguenots.
Murray's Egypt. Carter on Eyesight, Good and Bad.
The Watering-Places of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. Poets in the Palpit.
The Folk-Lore Record. Reata. Minor Notices.

(11) *The Foreign Office List, 1880*. Compiled by Sir Edward Hertalet, C.B. London: Harrison.

(12) *The Colonial Office List, 1880*. Compiled by Edward Fairfield, of the Colonial Office. London: Harrison.

(13) *Handbook of the Statutes relating to Parliamentary Elections in England and Wales*. With an Analytical Index. By William Masterman. London: Clowes & Son.

(14) *A Guide to Election Law and the Law and Practice of Election Petitions*. By the Hon. Chandos Leigh and Sir Henry Le Marchant, Bart. Third Edition. By the Hon. Chandos Leigh and Yarborough Anderson, M.A. London: Davis & Son.

(15) *Highland Legends*. By Sir Thomas Dick Lauder, Bart. London: Hamilton, Adams, & Co.

(16) *The Chandos Classics.—The German Novelists*. By Thomas Roscoe. *The Italian Novelists*. By Thomas Roscoe. *The Spanish Novelists*. By Thomas Roscoe. London: F. Warne & Co.

(17) *The National Music of the World*. By the late Henry Fothergill Chorley. Edited by Henry G. Hewlett. London: Sampson Low & Co.

(18) *Heat as a Mode of Motion*. By John Tyndall. Sixth Edition. London: Longmans & Co.

(19) *Roughing it in Van Diemen's Land, &c.* By Edward Howe. London: Strahan & Co.

(20) *Facts about Port and Madeira; with Notices of the Wines vinetaged around Lisbon and the Wines of Teneriffe*. By Henry Vizetelly. London: Ward, Lock, & Co.

CONTENTS OF No. 1,280, MAY 8, 1880:

Coming Dangers.—*L'Enfant Terrible*.—England and Italy in the East.—The West of England Bank.—Land Legislation.—The International.—Women's Suffrage.—Civil Marriage.—Educational Controversies.

Journal of a Doctor in Marlborough's Wars.—Polishing Off Peaks.—Dean Stanley on Roman Variations.—The Sword of Our Fathers.—Turning Over a New Leaf.—The Parliamentary Oath.—*The Herald of Peace*.—The Money Market.—The Picture Galleries. II.—The Theatres.—Newmarket and Chester.

Jameson's Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language.—Croker's Boswell and Boswell.—Eastern Cities and Italian Towns.—A Consul's Manner.—Poet and Peer.—Macdonell's France Since the First Empire.—Fifty Years' Colonial Experiences.—Frédéric Lemaître's Recollections.—Leroy's Dictionary of Pomology.

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INSTITUTE of PAINTERS in WATER-COLOURS.—The FORTY-SIXTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION is NOW OPEN, from Nine till dusk. Admission, Is. Catalogue, 6d. H. F. PHILLIPS, Secretary. Gallery, 55 Pall Mall.

MR. MARTIN COLNAGHI will EXHIBIT, on and after May 10, at the GUARDI GALLERY, 11 Haymarket, a COLLECTION of PICTURES by Domingo, the celebrated Spanish Painter, by Philipps, Charlemont, Brozik, Roylet, and other important Continental Artists. Open from Nine till Seven. Admission, with Catalogue, Is.

LONDON LIBRARY, 12 St. James's Square.—The THIRTY-NINTH ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING of the Members will be held in the Reading-room, on Monday, May 31, at Three o'clock in the afternoon. By Order of the Committee. ROBT. HARRISON, Secretary and Librarian.

LONDON ANTI-VIVISECTION SOCIETY.—A MEETING of Subscribers and Friends of the Society will be held in Willis's Rooms, King Street, St. James's, on Wednesday Afternoon, 19th instant. Chair to be taken at Half-past Three, by Admiral Sir WM. KING HALL, K.C.B., F.R.S. The following Gentlemen are to take part in the proceedings: W. Allen, Esq., M.P.; Dr. E. Bredie, W. Gordon, Esq., Dr. Alfred Harvey, W. Nicholas, Esq., Rev. H. Sinclair Paterson, M.D., Rev. H. W. Webb-People, B.A., R. Denny Urrin, Esq., and Rev. G. W. Weidman, M.A. Admission Tickets to be had Free, of the SECRETARY, 189 Brompton Road, S.W.

UNIVERSITY of LONDON.—Notice is hereby given, that the next HALF-YEARLY EXAMINATION for MATRICULATION in this University will commence on Monday, June 21, 1880. In addition to the Examination at the University, Provincial Examinations will be held at Owens College, Manchester; Queen's College, Liverpool; Queen's College, Birmingham; St. Catharine's College, Tulse; Stonyhurst College; St. Patrick's College, Carlow; University College, Bristol; the Yorkshire College, Leeds; the School of Science and Art, Newcastle-on-Tyne; and (for Ladies only) at the Ladies' College, Chesham. Every Candidate is required to transmit his Certificate of Age to the REGISTRAR (University of London, Burlington Gardens, London, W.) at least fourteen days before the commencement of the Examination. May 10, 1880. ARTHUR MILLMAN, M.A., Registrar.

CHELTEMHAM COLLEGE.—TWELVE SCHOLARSHIPS. Eight £10; Four £20. Election, third Tuesday in May.—Apply to the SECRETARY, The College, Cheltenham.

ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS.—TRINITY COLLEGE SCHOOL, STRATFORD-ON-AVON.—Four, of the value of 30 Guineas per annum, will be open to competition to all BOYS under Fourteen on the day of the Examination (June 29).—Apply to the WARDEN.

ROSSALL SCHOOL.—ENTRANCE SCHOLARSHIPS.—TWELVE to be competed for, June 29. Value, from 70 Guineas (covering School Fees) to £20. Ages, under 14 and 15½. Candidates may be examined at Rossall or Oxford, as preferred, in Classics or Mathematics.—Apply to Rev. the HEAD-MASTER, Rossall School, Fleetwood.

SHERBORNE SCHOOL.—SEVEN SCHOLARSHIPS will be offered for Competition on July 29.—Apply to the Rev. A. Wood, Sherborne, Dorset.

SOMERSETSHIRE COLLEGE, BATH.—An EXAMINATION will be held on June 29 and 30, to elect to Seven Entrance Scholarships.—T. M. BROMLEY, M.A., Head-Master.

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UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, LONDON.—THE PROFESSORSHIP of MATHEMATICS will be VACANT at the end of the Present Session. Applications for the Appointment will be received on or before June 2, at the Office of the College, where further information may be obtained. TALFOURD ELY, M.A., Secretary.

UNIVERSITY of OTAGO, NEW ZEALAND.—CHAIR of ENGLISH LANGUAGE and LITERATURE, POLITICAL ECONOMY, and CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY.

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The age of Candidates should not exceed Forty. No religious test is required to qualify to hold office in the University or to graduate or to hold any advantage or privilege thereof.

The tenure of office shall be during good behaviour, but in case of the successful candidate becoming incapacitated from age or any other circumstance, a substitute pro tempore shall be appointed who shall receive half the salary and the whole of the fees.

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Applications from Candidates, with seven copies of testimonials, must be lodged with GEORGE ANDERSON, Esq., 88 C., 3 Hope Street, Edinburgh; or HUGH AULD, Esq., W.S., 21 Thistle Street, there, on or before May 31 next.

Edinburgh, April 28, 1880.

A LADY is required to take charge, as **MATRON**, of the BOYS in the COLLEGE of ETON. She must be a person between Thirty and Forty-five years of age, without incumbency. She will have the care of the Boys, seventy in number, and the duty of attending them in illness. She will also have the hiring of the female servants in College and the power of dismissing them. She will be provided with a set of furnished Rooms in the College Buildings for herself and for a female servant, also with coals and gas. She will receive a salary of £200 a year, out of which she will have to provide for her own board and for the wages and board of her female servant. Applications, accompanied by testimonials and personal references, should be sent before June 12, to RICHARD COPE, Esq., Eton College.

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"O REST IN THE LORD" (Mendelssohn).—CAUTION.—The original MANUSCRIPT SCORE, by the Composer of the above air, from the Oratorio of "Elijah," and an AUTOGRAPH LETTER from him to Mr. Bartholomew, dated May 28, 1846, recently presented to the Guildhall Library by Mrs. Mounsey Bartholomew, are MISSING therefrom. Any information tending to their recovery should be addressed to the LIBRARIAN. In the event of either of these Manuscripts being offered for Sale, the public are hereby informed that they are the Property of the Corporation of London, by whom they are claimed. Guildhall, E.C.: May 1880.

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This Society and Club is established for the encouragement and enjoyment of pursuits of refinement. It is an attempt to combine the English and Foreign ideas of Club recreation. Besides the usual Club advantages, there are Picture Galleries, Class Rooms, and a grand Entertainment Hall. Concerts are given on Mondays, Readings on Tuesdays, Soirées on Wednesdays, Discussions on Thursdays, Dramas on Saturdays. Members have free entrance. Guests only are admitted. The List of Original Members is now Closed. For a short time longer Members will be admitted on half terms. For details apply to F. W. THURSTAN, M.A., Secretary, or to Colonel C. R. CHAMBERS, Club Secretary, 7 Argyl Street, Regent Circus, W.

NOTICE TO MEMBERS. The Premises open formally on May 17. The opening Concert commences at 8.20 P.M. Artists.—Messieurs Liebhart, Arabell, Smythe; Mesdemoiselles Molyneux, Helen Armin, De Bunsen, Brouill; Signor Isidor de Sara, &c. Conductors.—Li Cadi, Liech, De Solia. H. ST. MAUR, Dramatic Secretary.

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FREEHOLD GROUND RENTS.—CITY of LONDON.—The COMMISSIONERS of SEWERS of the City of London will meet in the Guildhall of the said City, on Tuesday, the 25th day of May, 1880, at Half-past Twelve o'clock precisely, to receive TENDERS for the purchase of VALUABLE FREEHOLD GROUND RENTS and REVERSIONS of Premises in the Poultry, let on Building Leases, having about eighty years unexpired, viz.:

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Particulars and Plans of the Premises may be had at this Office, together with the Conditions of Sale. Tenders must be sealed, endorsed outside "Tender for Freehold Ground Rent, No. 33 Poultry," &c. (stating the Premises, as the case may be), and be addressed to the undersigned, at this Office, and must be delivered before Twelve o'clock on the said day of treaty.

The Commissioners do not bind themselves to accept the highest or any Tender. Parties sending in proposals must attend personally, or by a duly authorized agent, at Half-past Twelve o'clock on the said day, and be then prepared if their Tender be accepted to pay the required deposit of 10 per cent. on the purchase money, and to execute an Agreement for the completion of the purchase agreeably to the Conditions of Sale.

Sever's Office, Guildhall: HENRY BLAKE, Principal Clerk. April 1880.

MIDLAND RAILWAY.—TOURIST ARRANGEMENTS, 1880.—FIRST and THIRD CLASS TOURIST TICKETS, available, with some exceptions, until December 31, 1880, will be issued from May 1 to October 31, 1880. For Particulars, see Time Tables and Programmes, issued by the Company. Derby, April 1880. JOHN NOBLE, General Manager.

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